The Outlook

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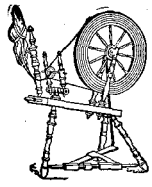

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, JANUARY 19, 1907

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The Usurpations of the President

There has been a great hue and cry raised by some politicians over the President's alleged usurpations of the authority and functions of other departments of the Government. He has been accused of endeavoring to unite in himself the various offices of the executive, legislative, and judicial powers. The Senate especially is deeply stirred by the bogie of a usurping President, and has been vigorously assaulting this creature of its own imagination. When a President contents himself with simply executing the will of Congress, he is criticised because he does nothing; and when a President of energy and initiative endeavors to achieve results and to do the normal work of a President as one of the leaders in American public life, he is denounced as having hidden purposes which look to the subversion of the Government. There is a touch of humor in the sensitiveness of the Senate in this matter. Those who recall a paper by that very careful and intelligent observer Professor Henry Loomis Nelson on "The Usurpation of the Senate," which appeared in Harper's Magazine a few years ago, will wonder whether the apparent gravity with which the Senate regards the usurpations of the President is not an official form of the great American joke. For many years past the Senate has steadily pushed its power in every direction, checking the President here and there, reducing the House of Representatives to a subordinate body, and making itself, as a distinguished member of Mr. McKinley's Cabinet said, "a group of gentlemen who spend their entire time in extending their privileges." The report that a joint resolution is being prepared, by the terms of which the President of the United States will be required to file with Congress a copy of every Executive order, and which provides also for the creation of "a commission of distinguished lawyers to report on the President's acts and orders," must be counted among the humors of the session. It is impossible to believe that even the Senate could discuss these propositions with a grave face.

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A Measure for Public Safety

If any one should doubt whether the regulation by law of the number of hours in which railway employees should be engaged in labor is of concern to others than the employees themselves, let him read the article published in The Outlook last summer called "Asleep at His Post," or read the evidence, referred to last week in The Outlook, taken in connection with recent railway massacres. The public, therefore, as well as railway workers, may be congratulated that the Railway Hours Bill passed the Senate last week by a vote of seventy to one. That the bill, with its sixteen-hour limit of work, may not be exactly what a final and thorough dealing with the subject demands is indicated by the fact that an English locomotive engineer, in a frank and good-natured letter to the New York Times describing his experience in New York, says that he found that railway men are worked harder and longer here than in England, and adds: "We are not so well paid in England, but then we work only ten hours a day and have two hours off for meals." He notes also that there appears to be less good feeling between railway employees and the traveling public in America than in England. Yet the bill is of substantial value, and Senator La Follette showed his good sense by adopting many suggestions made by colleagues in criticism of the original bill, so that the bill actually passed was in fact a substitute for the original.

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Briefly stated, the bill as passed prohibits railways engaged in inter-State and foreign commerce from requiring or permitting those of their employees who have to do with the movement of trains to work more than sixteen hours consecutively, or more than an aggregate of sixteen in each twenty-four hours, and requires that when an employee shall have worked for sixteen hours there shall follow a period of rest of not less than ten hours before he shall resume his duties. Certain exceptions are made to provide for accidents, the failure of trains to make their regular schedules, connections, etc. Violation of the act is declared to be a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of from $100 to $1,000, and the Inter-State Commerce Commission is charged with the duty of enforcing the law, and all authority necessary to do so is given it. A touch of the burlesque was added to the vote on the bill by the explanation given in the newspapers for the single vote cast in opposition. This one Senator out of seventy-one who could not conscientiously vote in favor of the bill was Mr. Pettus, of Alabama, and we are told that this was because he is a constant opponent of all legislation regulating railways, since he is convinced that any such legislation is and must be a violation of the rights of the States. Evidently Mr. Pettus is one of those who believes, not that the United States is a Nation, but that the United States are a Nation.

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Coroners' Investigation of Railway Accidents

Last week the investigation of the railway accident on the Baltimore and Ohio road at Terra Cotta, D. C., ended. The coroner's verdict was that the deaths were caused by impact due to the act of an operator in displaying an improper signal, and also to the engineers, conductors, train despatcher, and division operator involved. It is a special satisfaction to note that the jury arraigned the block system on the Baltimore and Ohio as not affording satisfactory protection to the lives and property of its patrons; arraigned the system of wages paid to the operators and signalmen; recommended that all block signal stations be kept open twenty-four hours a day, and that no additional duties be given to the operators aside from working the signals and attending to their telegraphic duties. Many coroners' investigations seem farcical; this one, spurred by the Inter-State Commerce Commission, has been not only apparently thorough in fixing the blame, but, what is far more important, has recommended some safeguards in the effort to prevent future accidents. The inquiry, published day by day in detail, has sufficiently shown that young men characterized by their fellow-operators as "incompetent, wild, and reckless" ought never to be given opportunity to display a possible wrong signal; that for an engineer to run past a signal, the situation of which is known and expected by him, simply because it is obscured, is as reprehensible as for him to run into a train showing red lights a hundred feet ahead; that any but an automatic block signal system is untrustworthy; finally, that in most railway disasters the ultimate fault lies not so much with operators and engineers, or with superintendents and presidents, as with those in financial control of them and the road, who are prone to manage the property not so much from the operative as from the speculative side.

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Railway Investigation of Railway Accidents

Most railway accidents are preventable, since they are due to defects in signaling systems or in track or train apparatus, to negligence of train despatchers or engineers, or to unreasonably long hours of work. But accidents never will be prevented so long as the railway companies themselves, or even coroners' juries, conduct the investigation. After every serious accident the company involved immediately announces that it will promptly hold an investigation, and this doubtless means as thorough an inquiry as the operating officers can make. But what assurance or comfort is it to the relatives and friends of the killed and to the maimed to know that the railway company, an interested party, is to conduct an investigation? Such investigations

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are not only partisan; they are secret, because, for one reason, too much information might be furnished for damage suits. Railway patrons have now for the most part lost patience with such partisanship and secrecy. What do the patrons of the Lake Shore road, for instance, know of its investigation of the awful and unnecessary Mentor disaster—the direct result of the use of facing switches on a double-track railway?—a use which ought long ago to have been prohibited by law. What do the Pennsylvania's patrons, for instance, know of its investigation of the more recent disaster near Atlantic City, when scores of passengers on one of its subordinate lines were suddenly hurled from a bridge into the water and drowned like rats? What do the Southern Railway's patrons know of its investigation of the Thanksgiving Day disaster, when the President of that road and other prominent men lost their lives? Even if the public has already established the blame as to the cause of these disasters, does it see any very immediate effort on the part of the railways to prevent a repetition? Has it learned that on the Lake Shore there are any fewer facing switches? that on the Pennsylvania bridges there are more inside steel guard-rails and complete interlocking systems? that on the Southern there has been a tardy installation of mechanical checks to prevent operators from giving wrong signals? If not, dividends might better be withheld until these things are done. The railway's recommendations to itself are not published, and if, in the very rare case that a coroner's jury, as last week, presumes to make recommendations, it cannot enforce them. What is needed is something thorough, public, and mandatory.

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Government Investigation of Railway Accidents

In England, when any railway accident occurs, the law has for many years required an investigation, not only by the company involved, but also by the Bureau of Railway Accidents, a department in the Board of Trade, and thus under the ultimate charge of a Cabinet officer. The non-partisan, public, government investigation fixes the blame, and the Bureau decides what preventive remedies should be used, its recommendations having the force of law. With regard to accidents on our railways engaged in inter-State commerce, it is a pity that the Inter-State Commerce Commission has not sufficiently broad powers, or that they are not lodged in a special bureau to be created in our Department of Commerce. Such a Bureau of Railway Accidents, composed of the most eminent experts, is needed to investigate disasters, independently of the companies or the coroners, to employ the power of the Federal courts in compelling the attendance of witnesses and the production of papers, to fix the responsibility, and to decide upon methods for the avoidance of further accidents. Its recommendations should be mandatory. Nor should it be forgotten that the moral effect of the thoroughness, publicity, and authority of such a system would operate upon our railway companies, as it has in England, in the prevention of disasters. Does not Congress realize that railways are highways, and that while they transport inter-State traffic the authority of Congress over them is exclusive? Does not Congress appreciate the fact that its action in establishing Federal investigation of railway accidents would elicit approval from the executive branch of the Government, as from all thoroughgoing railway officials and from all railway passengers? How many more disasters are necessary before Congress will act?

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Governor Hughes and Party Hacks

The hack politicians of both parties in New York State seem to be acting as if the last election were a mandate for them to do as they please. The popular interpretation of the election is quite the contrary. It would be hard to imagine an election by which the voters could more clearly express their dissatisfaction with machine politics. They rejected the candidate for Governor who owed his nomination to intrigue, and chose the candidate who was nominated for his personal qualities alone; at the

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same time they defeated those State officials who, justly or unjustly, had come to be regarded as the representatives of a well-intrenched party organization, and put in their places untried men whose political obligations were at least somewhat less obvious. They defeated a number of legislators who had been zealous servants of political managers, and, with scarcely an exception, they returned to the Legislature men who had exhibited independence in the service of the State. In spite of this fact, both party machines are acting as if they had been granted a new lease of life. The Republican leader of the State Senate has made up the Senate committees so that well-tried agents of boss rule are in places of power, and men who have shown independence with party loyalty are for the most part where they can exercise little authority. The pretense that these committees have been formed on the principle of seniority is not supported by the facts. It might be supposed that the Democratic party would see in this situation its opportunity. Instead of that, it seems to regard it as a challenge to compete in obstinacy. It has accepted the challenge and proved its own resources in folly. Charles F. Murphy, the notorious Tammany boss, has visited Albany and assumed the place of State leader; in the lower house of the Legislature the Democrats have chosen as their party leader "Paradise Park Jimmy" Oliver. Incidentally the Independence League, in spite of the treatment it received at the hands of its creator, Mr. Hearst, has chosen him its State Chairman. There are, on the other hand, a number of honest, able men in the Legislature whose character alone will give them power. These are the men, whatever their official positions, who really represent the present determined temper of the voters. In the meantime Governor Hughes is conspicuously the man to whom the people look as their champion against special interests and party bosses. It remains to be seen whether these special interests and party bosses will have the audacity to invite popular anger by engaging in a contest with Governor Hughes.

An Election Fourteen Months Long

Proceedings to oust Mayor McClellan, of New York City, from his office and to put William Randolph Hearst in his place have been renewed. The Attorney-General of the State, elected last fall on the Hearst State ticket, himself a pronounced supporter of Mr. Hearst, a pupil learned in the phraseology of Hearst journalism, and a protégé of one of the least respectable bosses of the State, has served, in the name of the people of the State, a summons and complaint upon Mayor McClellan. In the complaint the charge is made that in the mayoralty election of 1905 Mr. Hearst was "duly and legally elected Mayor," that in "each and every election district" in the city Hearst ballots and void ballots were counted for McClellan, that returns were illegally made, and that "the defendant, George B. McClellan, has usurped and intruded into and now unlawfully usurps and holds said office of Mayor of the said city of New York." After obtaining a court order from a Supreme Court Justice, the Attorney-General, Mr. Jackson, by his representatives, who are said to have been Hearst inspectors of election in the mayoralty campaign, made a raid at two o'clock at night on ballot-boxes in storage, seized them, and sealed them. As a consequence the evidence concerning Mr. McClellan's election is now, a year and two months afterwards, in the virtual possession of his opponent. In the meantime bills for a recount of the ballots have been introduced into the Legislature, and the Governor recommends that some measure of that sort be passed. The whole situation borders upon the ridiculous; it reminds one of the kind of political methods that have made Cuba once more a dependency and have cursed such a country as Venezuela. The stability of democratic institutions depends upon the acquiescence of all the people in the determination of a contest at the polls. If that contest is to be indefinitely prolonged by legal processes, stability of government is at an end. The defect in this case is partly in the disposition of Mr. Hearst, who is a "bad loser." It is also partly in the law. There ought to be some reason-

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ably accurate and speedy method of determining the result of an election, and a provision that when the result by that method has been secured the evidence be destroyed.

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Direct Primaries

Public sentiment in favor of a more direct participation by voters in the machinery of government is growing stronger. Last week it found expression in the Message of Governor Stokes, of New Jersey. He recommended to the Legislature a law to provide virtually for the popular election of United States Senators. The Federal Constitution, it is true, provides that the members of the United States Senate be elected by the Legislatures of the several States; but it also provides that the President be elected, not by the people, but by a college of electors. As, however, each elector is chosen with the unmistakable understanding that he is to vote for a definitely designated Presidential candidate, so each legislator may be chosen with an equally unmistakable understanding that he will cast his vote for a definitely designated Senatorial candidate. Although the cases are not quite parallel, since the electoral college has but this one duty, while the Legislature has many duties, yet several States have succeeded in bringing about by this means what is in effect a popular election of Senators. As Governor Stokes declares, the popular election of Senators, as thus secured, is in conformity with the practice in electing the President and Vice-President; and he suggests that it embodies, in a regular way, the desires of the voters. "Whatever may have been," he says, "the theory of our forefathers in vesting the election of the United States Senators in the Legislatures of the several States, the presumption to-day is that the members of the Legislature, in performing this duty, voice the sentiment of their various constituencies." What makes Governor Stokes's recommendation the more significant is the fact that it comes from the by no means radical Governor of a conservative State. The people of New Jersey, however, have been roused by the candidacy of Senator Dryden for re-election; they know that he would never have been Senator except for his connection with the enormously powerful Public Service Corporation and a large and very influential insurance company. A great many people of New Jersey do not relish that fact. Governor Stokes is, therefore, sowing in prepared ground. The difficulties of drafting a praticable law for the popular election of Senators in a State such as New Jersey, which is nearly equally divided between the two great parties, are much greater than in a State, such as South Carolina or Arkansas, where one party is in the ascendency. Governor Stokes indicates these difficulties; he recommends, nevertheless, that the county, as the unit of representation in New Jersey, be legally entitled to express at the primaries its choice for Senator. This recommendation was followed in two days by the recommendation of Governor Woodruff, of Connecticut, that the Legislature of that State carefully consider the report of a legislative commission in favor of a direct primary. This movement on the part of the voters to take the selection of their representatives more and more into their own hands ought to be borne in mind at the same time with the movement toward granting the Federal Government greater powers. Both movements are equally characteristic of the present development of American political institutions.

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Progress in Forestry

Last week at Washington the annual meeting of the American Forestry Association took place. It was, first of all, a celebration, for, as Dr. Will, the Association's Secretary, said in his report, in the entire history of the forest movement in America the year 1906 was the most notable, in its rapid expansion, National and State, in the strengthening of forest education, and particularly in the activity of the American Forestry Association, which during the year gained twenty-seven hundred new members! In his address the Association's President, the Hon. James Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, brought out the imperative need of forest preservation and extension,

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showing that the scarcity of wood to-day compared with the quantity available in the past is beginning to be felt by every one throughout the country. The steadily increasing general demand outruns production. The disheartening results attending some attempted National legislation moved him to urge upon the separate States to make more of forestry as a State issue, inasmuch as it would redound to their respective interests in the future. These remarks were confirmed by Dr. Edward Everett Hale, who showed how the national income of certain European countries has been wonderfully increased by a proper State investment in forestry, and then, turning to the other extreme, instanced Syria, where abject poverty exists principally because the land is deforested. After listening to other addresses of an equally important character, the Association put itself on record by recommending to Congress to loan to the Forest Service the sum of five million dollars as working capital for the development of the forest reserves, a loan also recommended by President Roosevelt in a recent Message; next urging upon Congress the repeal of the Timber and Stone Act, so long a source of fraud and loss to the Government, and the substitution therefor of legislation providing that land more valuable for timber than for other purposes shall hereafter not be subject to entry of any kind; thirdly, warning investors, irrespective of locality, of the danger of loss in their investment unless the Government safeguards forest conditions—a novel but necessary appeal, since the general welfare is being injuriously affected by the increasing scarcity and cost of wood materials, and many savings are invested in various enterprises dependent on water-power, which would be ruined by forest destruction.

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The Appalachian and White Mountain Reserves

But the most strenuous of all the resolutions passed at the meeting of the American Forestry Association was that concerning the proposed Appalachian and White Mountain reserves. In the West more than a hundred million acres of reserves have thus far been secured. The East has no similar reserves, yet they are no less needed for the preservation of timber and the prevention of drought. The White Mountain forest range regulates the flow of the five principal New England rivers; the lower Appalachian range regulates the flow of all the largest rivers south of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi. The two ranges thus hold one of the chief sources of the wealth of thirteen States—their water-power. The bill to establish the Appalachian and White Mountain reserves, when first proposed, was opposed by those who declared that each individual State should attend to the matter for itself, following New York State's example in the Adirondacks. But the States concerned in the proposed reserves are pecuniarily unable to do so. Again, the creation and maintenance of a reserve often concerns other States than that or those in which the proposed reserves would be. Finally, Federal control is more efficient than State control. Hence, the bill to establish Appalachian and White Mountain reserves ultimately passed the Senate without dissent, and was unanimously reported to the House of Representatives by its Committee on Agriculture. A majority of the House is understood to favor it; yet it may not be permitted to come to a vote. Why? Because the Speaker of the House, influencing the Committee on Rules, blocks the way. He says that if the proposition included only the White Mountains, a park there might be feasible; but that "to buy up half the Southern States" is "too big." When we remember that the floods in one year, 1902, caused a loss in the Southern States of eighteen million dollars, sweeping away cotton and saw mills and distributing silt from the mountains over farms through a wide region to its ruin, one wonders how Mr. Cannon can oppose such a measure, especially one likely to lessen the swollen River and Harbor Bill. How is it that, when a bill has passed the Senate and been recommended to the House by one of its largest committees, has beforehand the President's approval, with the active support of every Governor and of prominent business men in many States, one

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official may prevent the National House of Representatives from considering it? The Outlook reader who is interested in this admirable work can help it on by writing to his Representative in Congress, asking him not only to vote for this measure if it comes up, but also to see that it does come up for action.

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The Increasing Appreciation of Good Architecture

Last week the American Art Institute kept its fiftieth anniversary in Washington—an occasion fitly celebrated by the completion of the fund to purchase the famous Octagon House. That picturesque residence was built in 1798, from the plans of Dr. William Thornton, the successful competitor for the position of architect for the United States Capitol. Thornton, no less than his patron Thomas Jefferson, had a wide knowledge of classic architecture, and stamped its character upon our capital city. When completed, the Octagon House was occupied as a residence by Colonel John Tayloe, one of President Washington's close friends. The President often visited the building, which was then one of the handsomest houses in the country. After 1814, the British having burned the White House, President Madison occupied the Octagon House. During this occupancy the Treaty of Ghent, which closed the second war with England, was signed by him in the famous circular room, now used as the office of the Secretary of the American Institute of Architects. It will be a satisfaction not only to all architects, but to all Americans, to think that this fine old residence is now to become the permanent home of the American Institute. At a reception there a chief figure of interest was Sir Aston Webb, the restorer of St. Bartholomew's, that oldest of London churches, and the architect of several Government buildings. He was later the recipient of the Institute's gold medal for distinguished achievement in architecture. That the first bestowal of this medal should be given to an Englishman is a recognition of the indebtedness of American architects to England. As Mr. Day, President of the Institute, remarked, our early settlers brought the wholesome tradition of English architecture with them, and as each wave of immigration reached our shores, there came not only a larger knowledge of English art but a stronger impulse to build wisely and well, as the English do; we learned this lesson, as may be shown by buildings at such widely separated places as Newport, Annapolis, Charleston, and the James River region. Thus, concluded Mr. Day, not only did the traditions of Inigo Jones and Sir Christopher Wren give vitality and character to our colonial buildings, but, at a later time, the classical revival which swept over Europe was especially evident in the work of William Thornton. As was expected, the Institute did not adjourn without urging the passage of the bill now before Congress providing for the appointment of a commission to supervise the erection and improvement of all buildings that are Government property, throughout the United States. This measure also covers the establishment and improvement of Government reservations, army posts, and highways. Thus the bill is not merely an architectural project, but its application to reservations and highways should strongly operate for the preservation of natural scenery.

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Savings Bank Insurance

In the recent investigation and discussion of insurance matters the fact was brought out conspicuously that the cost of what is called industrial insurance is far greater than it should be, even when full allowance is made for its peculiar character. In other words, the very poor man pays far more for his insurance than any one else, both absolutely and relatively. One method proposed to better this is that of savings bank insurance, and to this end a bill has been introduced into the Massachusetts Legislature, and we believe similar movements are on foot elsewhere. In Boston Mr. Louis D. Brandeis, who is the leading advocate of the Massachusetts measure, pointed out that the workingmen of the State in fifteen years have paid over $61,000,000 to

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industrial insurance companies, and have received back about $21,000,000, with an accumulated reserve of only $10,000,000, so that more than half of what has been paid in (to say nothing of interest) has gone for expenses and dividends to stockholders. He avers that the holder of an industrial policy pays from two to eight times as much as the holder of an old-line policy. As to the enormous profit of industrial companies, he says that one of them pays 219 per cent. on the cash capital actually paid in, while the stock is in comparatively few hands. The whole machinery of industrial insurance is enormously expensive, for it combines all the disadvantages of the small installment selling plan for any commodity, besides a tremendous loss from lapsed policies. What is the remedy? Government insurance and savings bank insurance are two proposals very wide apart, and there are undoubted arguments of force against both. No one suggests that the present companies should be abolished, but, says Mr. Brandeis:

> It seems to me the State is called upon to provide some way in which workingmen can have such insurance without making such terrible sacrifices. We encounter first of all the argument that unless you have such a system people won't insure—that you must have the solicitor hounding people in the first instance or they won't take out insurance, and weekly domiciliary visits afterwards or they won't pay. That may be true for a certain portion of the community, but there is a large class of intelligent and thrifty citizens who would avail themselves of a better system. Life insurance is only at the beginning of its development, and it is our duty to provide the best means for its future growth.

The special advantage of the savings bank plan, in Mr. Brandeis's opinion, is that the officers and directors are peculiarly suited to act as trustees, as they are emphatically trustees now. Thus they could carry on with economy and care the insurance business with the same methods, spirit, and purpose as they do the management of savings. Moreover, this increased usefulness would work through an established plant, and instantly information and urgent advice to insure would be conveyed by the banks to their 1,880,000 depositors. Heavy initial expense would be avoided. Again, Mr. Brandeis thought that people would welcome an opportunity to do business at home with men they know rather than to send to great financial institutions in distant places. His scheme includes provision for payment of premiums from the savings bank account of the insured, so that their money would draw interest until it was actually applied to the insurance. There might also be a central reserve fund between the savings banks as a guarantee. To the objection that this plan would benefit the thrifty only, Mr. Brandeis replied that his idea was to make every citizen thrifty. The Outlook here simply reports the interest shown in trying to find some way to give the poor man plain and simple insurance at moderate cost. The future will bring out detailed discussion of various possible plans. But as to the pressing need of some plan no one can doubt.

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Judge Landis's Decision

The suit against the Standard Oil Company for accepting preferential rates of oil shipments has been decided in the Government's favor by Judge Landis at Chicago. The charge was that the Standard Oil Company obtained railway transportation at rates less than those named in the published schedules. This violated the Elkins Law, the offenses being committed prior to the enactment of the Railway Rate Regulation Law last June. The defendant contended that the Elkins Law did not prohibit a shipper from taking directly from a carrier a less rate than the published tariff, the claim being made that the law's purpose was merely the prohibition of indirect methods, or of inventing fraudulent devices to obtain preferential treatment. But Judge Landis said:

> Until this argument was advanced here, the Court had supposed that everybody agreed that what Congress was trying to do was to secure uniform freight rates, and that the various prohibitions and penalties were imposed to accomplish that result. I had never heard an intimation to the contrary from any quarter, and have heard nothing in this argument to change the Court's mind on this proposition. It is written in every section and line of the law that the thing sought by Congress was a fixed rate, absolutely,

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unvaryingly uniform, to be adhered to until publicly changed in the manner provided by law. The thing prohibited was the departure from that rate by any means whatsoever.

The defendant had also urged that to require a shipper to adhere to a fixed published rate defeats the ultimate object of inter-State commerce legislation, that object being the transportation of property for a reasonable compensation. Judge Landis no less quickly brushed this aside. What Congress wanted to bring about, he declared, was a reasonable rate for *all* shippers, not simply for some shippers. Congress knew that, as an essential prerequisite, preferences would have to be abolished. To abolish them the published rate must be the only lawful rate. This does not mean, said he, that a rate once fixed shall never be changed, but it does mean that when the change is made it must be in the way provided by law, namely, by publication, so that the new rate may be available to all shippers at the same time on equal terms. Thirdly, the defendant urged that some of the indictments are bad because they allege that the defendant procured its property to be transported for less than the published rate from or to points beyond the carrier's own line. Judge Landis's words are again worth quoting:

> The Court does not understand this to be the law. The shipping public is no more concerned with the question of whether the carrier owns the roadbed through to destination than it is with the question whether the carrier owns the car in which the property is transported. In such case the law regards such carrier so publishing its rate as thereby announcing that it has facilities for the transportation of property between the points mentioned in the schedule. Whether part of the distance is covered by lease, license, or some species of traffic arrangement is wholly immaterial. The rate once published, until publicly changed according to law, is no less binding upon all parties than it would be if the carrier owned outright the entire line.

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A Supposed Advantage No Advantage

The Elkins Law was superseded by the Railway Rate Regulation Law, which was approved by the President June 29, 1906. Congress adopted a joint resolution, approved June 30, providing that the law should take effect sixty days after its approval by the President. But the Standard Oil Company claimed that by the President's signature the new Rate Law went into effect on June 29, and that indictments under the Elkins Law could not therefore be returned in August. Judge Landis decides that the new law was effective in June, but that the indictments found under the old law are nevertheless good, and for the following reasons: Under common-law rules of construction, Judge Landis concedes that the repeal of a penal statute operates to wipe out all offenses against such repealed law, unless there is a statutory provision expressly authorizing their future prosecution. But offenses against the Elkins Law are kept alive for future prosecution by the statute of 1871, which provides that "the repeal of any statute shall not have the effect to release or extinguish any penalty, forfeiture, or liability incurred under such statute, unless the repealing act shall so expressly provide." Thus the repeal of the Elkins Act would not exculpate any one who had violated that act and escaped indictment. The Elkins Law had failed to establish uniform and reasonable railway rates, and hence was strengthened by the creation of additional and severe penalties. For instance, for the Standard's offenses, the Elkins Law prescribed punishment only by fine; the new law authorizes the additional penalty of imprisonment. Furthermore, as Judge Landis added, it is inconceivable that Congress, drafting a law the object of which was to secure to all fair treatment in the transportation of property on the basis of absolute equality, could say to prior offenders that those indicted should be punished and those who had avoided the Grand Jury should be pardoned. Judge Landis's opinion upon the Standard Oil's demurrers to the indictments thus constitutes a notably sweeping decision on the subject of corporate control and methods.

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An Instructive Typhoid Epidemic

For four weeks the city of Scranton, Pennsylvania, has been in the grasp of a severe epidemic of typhoid fever. In spite of the prompt

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adoption of the most thorough and drastic methods to prevent its spread, the number of cases has exceeded one thousand and the number of deaths eighty. Early in December the Bureau of Health discovered that an unusually large number of cases existed in the city. A prompt investigation led them to believe that the source of the disease was the water from one of the reservoirs which supply the city. The water from this reservoir was cut off, and that of another substituted. For three weeks the number of cases increased rapidly, almost entirely in the part of the city that had been served from the suspected source, and then a distinct lessening in the daily average of cases began to be observed. The co-operation of the State authorities was asked by the Mayor, as they have jurisdiction over the parts of the water supply system which are outside the city limits. An analysis by the State officials of the water from the reservoir in question resulted in the discovery in it of the typhoid bacillus, a result of rare occurrence in the case of water supplies; the isolation of the bacillus in such large quantities of water seems to be almost entirely a matter of chance. A thorough and painstaking examination of the entire watershed was made by both State and city authorities. While certain nuisances, which have been in existence for years, were found, all their efforts failed to locate the case of typhoid from which the infection proceeded. It must be remembered that the mere presence of sewage contamination in water is not a sufficient cause of typhoid infection. Actual bacilli from a typhoid patient must be present before the disease can be communicated. The fact that the source of the Scranton infection cannot be localized, in spite of the existence of these undoubted nuisances, calls attention to a possible source of danger to water supplies too seldom considered by communities. The complete elimination of nuisances such as have existed in the Scranton watershed for many years is a duty of such primary importance that it ought hardly to need to be stated. But beyond these permanent possibilities of pollution are the occasional possibilities arising from the presence on a watershed or near a reservoir of hunters, trampers, picnickers, or casual visitors. In the case of Scranton a not impossible source of infection was the passing trains on the Lackawanna Railway, which runs for a considerable distance close to the contaminated reservoir. This source of danger is now done away with by an arrangement with the railway by which the toilet-rooms on all trains are locked while passing through the watershed. The land around certain of the Scranton reservoirs is laid out with a network of beautiful roads, which form the main pleasure drives and walks of the people of the city. The work has been done by the President of the water company, Mr. W. W. Scranton, with the most praiseworthy intention. The result has been to encourage approach to the vicinity of the reservoirs and the sources of the water supply rather than to make it difficult. This condition is common throughout the country. Almost universally, approach is virtually invited, not forbidden. The presence of a single victim of walking-typhoid or a single typhoid convalescent may produce widespread disaster. The case of Scranton carries warning for every community. A city which prided itself on its good health, in especial its freedom from typhoid, and on its fine water supply, suffers because its precautions have not gone far enough. Typhoid epidemics are absolutely preventable; but only by the most thorough system and the utmost vigilance.

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Anarchy Against Anarchy

The assassination in St. Petersburg last week of General Pavloff, the Advocate-General, like that of the Prefect of Police, General von der Launitz, the preceding week, and like that a few days later of Colonel Andreieff, chief of gendarmes in the Lodz district, illustrates most forcibly an underlying truth of the present condition in Russia, already pointed out as such by The Outlook—namely, that revolutionary anarchy is contending against governmental anarchy. The concerted and deliberate attempt of the fighting section of the revolutionists to terrorize the Government by assassination is avowedly largely based on the lawless

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and arbitrary acts of the Government in seizing and executing suspected persons without proper trial. Thus anarchy fights anarchy. It is as truly terrorism for the agents of the Czar to prevent citizens from meeting in peaceful assembly to select candidates for seats in the new Duma as it is for the political assassin to throw a bomb or fire a pistol in the streets of St. Petersburg. Take, for instance, the case of General Pavloff. He was hated not merely because of the extreme measures he took as a public prosecutor, but most of all because it was believed that he had waved aside all semblance and pretense of acting under the law. In the early days of the first Duma, when he was called upon to appear and explain the frightful summary court martials and executions without court martial in the Baltic provinces, he showed such cold-blooded contempt for law that he was driven from the rostrum amid cries of "Murderer!" "Assassin!" and "Hangman!" and from that time on he was commonly known as "Hangman Pavloff." There seems to be no reason to doubt—to take a single instance—that he deliberately suppressed an order from the Czar countermanding the execution of certain prisoners, and on his own responsibility allowed the executions to proceed. If he did so, he committed murder, and ought to have been legally tried, and, if found guilty, executed. Instead of this, he was promoted, and thereby the Government went far to assume his guilt. It is in no way a commendation of assassination to point out that no Government can be continuously carried on in safety if it ignores law and justice. General von der Launitz, on the other hand, it is said, was not personally execrated, and for the very reason that, although he acted with continuous severity against the revolutionists, he showed a disposition to preserve the forms of law. But his position made him peculiarly the impersonation of the Government's system of widespread repression and wrongful interference with political rights. Thus, it is significant to note that under him the so-called flying section of the secret police made five hundred and eighty-eight arrests in St. Petersburg during three days in the latter part of December last. The charges were "revolutionary activity and illegal agitation"—a general phrase which might include almost anything, and which certainly was made to include the simplest and most natural exercise of the political liberty granted under the Czar's own rescript. The recent assassinations, and others which preceded them, have created a powerful impression, because the assassins undertook their work without the slightest expectation of escaping death, and because it is evidently perfectly easy to supply their places as fast as they are executed. Thus the terrorists have not merely threatened, but are actually carrying out, the tragic and dreadful design of destroying, one by one, the Czar's trusted and efficient agents in the work of repression. While it would be suicidal for the Government to yield to threats, it is perfectly clear that the only hope for internal peace and prosperity in Russia is the firm establishment of a true system of representative government. Unhappily, at the present moment all the indications are that the new Duma will either be a mere tool in the hands of the bureaucrats, or, if the popular will is strong enough to elect members of the Duma who shall really represent the people, that the Czar may again dismiss the legislative body which his own act created.

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The Pope's Encyclical

The Third Assembly of French Bishops is to be held this week in Paris, and it has been the hope of moderate people of all parties that the way would open for some working arrangement between the Government and the Catholic Church. It looks, however, as if the Pope's Encyclical to the French Church, as published in the Osservatore Romana, which is regarded as the official organ of the Vatican, last week, makes compromise more difficult. The Encyclical was evidently prepared with great care as a definition and defense of the position of the Vatican. It explains at some length the reasons for the Pope's refusal to permit the Church to avail itself of the associations cultuelles or of the opportunity of using church buildings by filing

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an annual declaration under the law of 1881. The Pope says the acceptance of the associations was impossible because under the law they were not only given authority over the possession and administration of church property, which belongs under canon law to ecclesiastic authority, but power over the exercise of worship, the associations being put entirely under civil authority. The Encyclical points out that the Pope's position toward Prussia is radically different from that toward France, because Prussian law recognizes the Catholic hierarchy, as does the law in Great Britain and in this country, while the French law ignores it. In this country and in Great Britain the management of Roman Catholic affairs is left entirely in the hands of Roman Catholic clergy. The Pope states as his reason for objecting to the use of an annual declaration of an intent to hold meetings for public worship that M. Briand in making this offer used his own discretion, and that the offer might be withdrawn by one of his successors; it has, therefore, no element of permanence. The Pope describes the law enacted three weeks ago to meet the situation created by the refusal to form associations cultuelles as the culmination of a general campaign of spoliation. Church buildings are set apart for religious purposes; but if a case should arise in which a part of the laymen in a parish accepted ecclesiastical authority and part refused it, the decision as to which faction should use the church would be left for the municipality to decide; in a number of cases, the Encyclical declares, such associations have been formed in the face of the Pope's prohibition, and the law of January 2, 1907, will induce anarchy. The Encyclical contains no definite direction as to the attitude of the clergy towards buildings which under the law of January 2 may be occupied by Catholics; that, apparently, is to be left to the bishops to decide. If these privileges are rejected, the Catholics will be driven to private dwellings as places of worship. There is good reason to believe that the two previous assemblies of bishops were ready to accept the law authorizing the making of declarations, but were turned from this course by orders from the Vatican. It seems probable that a majority of the French bishops still favor this attitude, but they will obey orders from Rome and condemn any effort at schism or secession.

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Raisuli Once More

Three years ago people who are interested in such matters were following the story of the kidnapping of Mr. Perdicaris from his home on the outskirts of Tangier by Raisuli, his perilous and exhausting ride to an almost inaccessible part of the mountains, and his detention there as a hostage; and readers of The Outlook have not forgotten John Hay's characteristic phrase, much quoted at the time—"Raisuli dead or Perdicaris alive!" The American Government sent a fleet to Tangier, and Mr. Perdicaris recovered his liberty on condition that Raisuli should be appointed by the Sultan Governor of all the districts in the neighborhood of Tangier; that the existing Governor, who had betrayed him, should be deposed; that he, Raisuli, should receive $70,000 in money; that all his enemies should be imprisoned, and all his friends released from prison. These terms being granted, Raisuli became the most important factor in the situation in Morocco, and for a time governed with an iron but just hand. He could not resist, however, the temptations of unrestricted power. After the old Oriental fashion, he began to squeeze money out of his subjects; he threatened, levied, and blackmailed in every direction; and, instead of being the protector, became the tyrant of the districts about Tangier, up to the very gates of the city. He made the mistake of interfering with the privileges and subjects of foreign Governments; he flogged protected natives; he deprived people of electric light; he blackmailed Europeans; and a fortnight ago the representatives of the Powers sent a collective note to the Moorish Minister of Foreign Affairs demanding that this state of things be brought to an immediate end. All the available forces of the country were directed against Raisuli, and he was compelled to flee the country, putting himself, according to the

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latest reports, in the hands of his brother-in-law, and now his brother-in-law offers to sell him for a large sum of money. To this unhappy position has come a man in whose veins is some of the most aristocratic Mohammedan blood; for he is a Shereef, or direct descendant of the Prophet. Even the blood of a prophet, however, will not save a man who begins by carrying off cattle and ends by becoming a blackmailer, nor can this kind at least of plunder through politics be continuously successful.

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The President and Prosperity

Pearson's Magazine for January contains an article by Mr. James Creelman on the personality and policy of President Roosevelt which deserves and probably will have a wide reading throughout the country. It may be thought that the subject has been pretty well exhausted by the magazines and newspapers, but Mr. Creelman has succeeded in giving a description of the President and his work which is vivid, fresh, and absorbing in interest. The title of the article, "Theodore the Meddler," is in itself so sensational that the man who knows how these things are often done in our modern newspaper-magazines is inclined to wonder whether the author has not let his journalistic sense get the better of his sense of accuracy. It is so much easier in a newspaper office to make your facts fit your headline than your headline fit your facts. The Outlook, however, has taken the pains to make some inquiry into the character of the article and is convinced of its substantial accuracy. Its purpose is to show that the President and his administration are not attacking thrift, industry, the material development of the country, or the accumulation of wealth. The President is not a meddler with the rights of capital nor with the progress of prosperity; he is a meddler with the wrongs of capital and with the doctrine that the Government of the United States is a Government for Prosperity rather than a Government for equal rights under the law. The following incident related by Mr. Creelman is a striking illustration of the conflict between these two theories of government:

> The Governors of six Northwestern States appealed to the President for relief from the Northern Securities railroad merger, which destroyed competition between the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific lines. The President referred the matter to Attorney-General Knox with instructions to deal with the case without fear or favor. The Attorney-General reported that the merger was a clear violation of National law. He was ordered to bring suit at once.
>
> Representatives of the Morgan-Hill merger interests went to the White House. Attorney-General Knox was present with the President.
>
> "You should have given private notice before filing a bill in the courts against the Northern Securities Company," said one.
>
> "Why?" asked the President.
>
> "We were taken by surprise and the action of the National Administration suddenly knocked the prices of our stocks to pieces in the market. You should have given notice for the sake of the innocent widows and orphans whose money was invested in the stock."
>
> "I would like to ask you," said Attorney-General Knox, heartlessly, "whether you gave advance information to the widows and orphans when you cornered Northern Pacific stock?"
>
> Again the President showed his teeth.
>
> "The Government doesn't give notice," he said. "When it believes that a man has committed a crime, it arrests him, and then notifies him of what he is accused. Why should the Government give notice to one man and not to another?"
>
> "But you might at least have notified five or six of the biggest men in Wall Street."
>
> The President smiled and rubbed his hands together softly.
>
> "I'm afraid that the little men would not have appreciated it," he answered, with cruel gentleness.
>
> "I'll say this for the President," exclaimed the Attorney-General, leaning back in his chair. "There is no stock ticker in the White House. That might as well be understood right now."

We occasionally receive letters from correspondents in which The Outlook is criticised as being a thick-and-thin supporter of President Roosevelt. To all such critics—all of whom no doubt have been entirely sincere, and most of whom have been entirely courteous—we commend Mr. Creelman's article as an exposition of those qualities in the President which command the support of The Outlook in the great political

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conflict which is now going on in this country. This conflict is deeper and more lasting than any policy of any President. It is a conflict between Equal Rights and Special Privilege, not a conflict of the forces of anarchy and disorder against the forces of industry and thrift, as many men actively engaged in the industrial and financial world mistakenly although sincerely believe it to be.

A well-known New York banker, whose public spirit and genuine patriotism are unquestioned, who, although a Republican, profoundly believes that President Roosevelt is an irritating and obstructive "meddler," put the case for special privilege very clearly in a recent discussion in these words: "The corporations, it is true, must be made to obey the law; but the law must allow the great captains of industry discretion as to how the country is to be developed. For example, a great tract of timber lies five hundred miles west of St. Paul. A capitalist proposes to build mills, to establish a village, to promote immigration, to open up a great territory, and thus to add greatly to the developing of the welfare of the entire country by the manufacture of this timber into shingles. He says to Mr. Hill, of the Great Northern Railway, 'I will do all this if you will give me a rate of five cents a thousand on shingles.' The small shingle-makers along the road between this point and St. Paul are paying ten cents a thousand. 'All right,' says Mr. Hill, 'I will give you this special rate in view of the great business you are promoting.' This, of course, destroys the small shingle-makers, who have to pay ten cents a thousand. It is painful, sometimes even pathetic, but the small manufacturer must submit to the law of the survival of the fittest, and Mr. Hill must be allowed to make the special rate, because if he does not make it our frontier will remain a vast wilderness and capital will have no incentive to develop new country, build new railroads, open new mines, and thus continue the greatest era of material progress and prosperity the world has ever seen."

This economic theory is advocated by some men with perfect honesty and sincerity, and is taken advantage of by some others for purposes of graft and corrupt profit. In either event it is dangerous because it is destructive. It is better that the small shingle-maker should have his rights and the country develop slowly than that the large shingle-maker should enjoy special personal privileges, even if they are granted to him for the purpose of rapidly developing the wealth of the whole country. The contest is a very much broader and deeper one than a conflict between the President and a group of leading financiers. Those men, like the banker whom we have just quoted, or those newspapers, like Harper's Weekly and the New York Sun, who imagine that if it were not for President Roosevelt Special Privilege could go on its way undisturbed, are not clearly reading the signs of the times.

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Railway Rate Regulation

A Conference Wanted

The law passed by the last Congress gives to the Inter-State Commerce Commission authority on complaint to declare a freight rate unjust and unequal and to prescribe in its place one that is just and equal. This was a necessary first step in the process of bringing the highways of the country under governmental control. But it is not final. It is at once too little and too much for a finality. It is too little because it does nothing to determine by what principles the Commission shall be guided in determining what are just and equal rates. It is too much because it gives the Commission practically unlimited power to determine what is just and equal without furnishing any standard by which it is to be guided. The courts have no such unlimited powers. They are controlled in their decisions, first by the Constitution of the United States and of the various States, secondly by the laws of the United States and of the various States, thirdly by the common law of the United States and the several States, and lastly by the

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body of past judicial decisions. The Inter-State Commerce Commission has no such body of doctrine to guide it. The railways have, therefore, some ground for their apprehension in the gift of such power of almost arbitrary decision upon that Commission.

It is a mistake to suppose that the railways are the enemies of the people, or that railway officials are exceptionally hard, unreasonable, or corrupt; though doubtless in some cases railways, acting on the principle that it is right to charge all that the traffic will bear, have dealt hardly and unjustly with special shippers and with special localities. It is also a mistake to suppose that the people are inimical to the railways or begrudge a fair profit to the owners and administrators of the railways for the services they render; though doubtless in some localities the people have made unreasonable demands and imposed unreasonable regulations on the railways. What is now wanted is that some fair-minded, public-spirited representatives of the railways should meet in conference with some fair-minded and broad-minded representatives of the traveling and shipping community, and endeavor to come to an agreement as to certain general principles to be applied in determining what are just and equal rates. The definition of those principles ought not to be left to be determined by the railways without taking account of the community's interests, nor by representatives of the community without taking account of the interests of the railways; nor should it be left to be determined by the Inter-State Commerce Commission by the very slow process of decision as to what is just and equal in special cases brought before the Commission by special complaints.

If such a conference as is here suggested could be held, in which the railways were represented by such men as the late Mr. Cassatt, and the Government, that is the people, were represented by a man of the judicial quality of Secretary Taft or Secretary Root—and such men not already so engrossed in public affairs can be found—it is not impossible that an agreement could be reached as to the fundamental principles of just and equal railway administration. If such an agreement were reached, Congress could be depended upon to enact it into law. And a law thus arrived at would be more likely to be just and equal than one obtained by a victory of the shippers over the railways, or by a victory of the railways over the shippers, or by a compromise between the railways and the shippers after a hot controversy between the two. And it would be more speedily reached than by waiting for the slow process of complaint before the Inter-State Commerce Commission, its decision on such complaints, appeals to the courts, and their final elucidation of the principles as the result of such appeals.

In a subsequent article we may point out by way of illustration what appear to us to be certain principles which such a conference might be expected eventually to reach, and Congress, as a result, to embody in legislation.

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Persia and Its Shah

A few years ago the death of the Shah of Persia would have caused great uneasiness in Europe, but now the loss of Muzaffer-ed-Din, who succeeded his father on the assassination of the latter in March, 1896, will probably not check the increasing stability and constitutional development of that country. The late Shah, who was selected by his father under the Persian law as his successor, came to the throne in middle life, after having served as Governor of Tabriz, the second city of importance in the country. He promptly reduced taxes on food, introduced a merit system for appointments in public offices, and announced that he would be his own Grand Vizier and the President of his Cabinet. Seven years ago he visited Europe and was entertained in the principal capitals of the Continent, barely escaping assassination at the hands of an Anarchist in Paris. He subsequently made two other European trips, and it was while he was in Paris in July, a year ago, that he was overcome by the heat. He seems never to have been well since that incident. He was a man of very considerable

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intelligence, and had made a careful study of Western institutions, with the intention of adapting them, so far as possible, to Persian conditions; he was thrifty and foreseeing, and consistently developed the resources of the country, strengthened its political and social institutions, and maintained freedom and security of person and property. His attitude towards the Mohammedan priests was reverential, but he was a firm believer in the supremacy of the civil over the religious power. Foreigners who had opportunities of meeting him agreed in ascribing to him intellectual abilities of an unusual order and a very agreeable and interesting personality. While on his visits to the Continent and in England he was tactful in maintaining the dignity of his position, while yet giving himself the freedom of a private person. Visitors at Carlsbad often saw him at close quarters; and the sole objection to his presence seems to have been his insistence on using a room in the hotel in which he was staying as a slaughter-house for the preparation of his food under the conditions required by the rules of the Mohammedan faith. When his father visited London in the time of Queen Victoria, he was given a very beautiful reception at Stafford House, the London home of the Duke of Sutherland. The Persian Shah was so impressed by the magnificence of the house and the splendor of the company that he called the Prince of Wales aside during the evening and asked him about the owner. He was told that the Duke was one of the foremost noblemen in England. The Persian ruler thereupon advised the Prince of Wales at once to decapitate him, declaring that, as a result of the long experience of Persian rulers, powerful subjects were dangerous, and that the Duke of Sutherland was not a person to be tolerated by a reigning monarch.

The late Shah was too much in touch with the modern world to cherish the illusions of old-time Oriental authority; he was too familiar with the political and social conditions in the modern world, and he ruled a people who, with the Japanese, stand for individual initiative and force of character among Orientals. The country of Cyrus and Zoroaster, whose ancient education consisted in teaching its boys to ride well, to shoot straight, and to tell the truth, has never entirely lost its vigor. Strongly religious and producing every devotional type from the most advanced mystic to the most practical religious reformer, Persia has not undervalued modern opportunities nor been blind to the value of commercial success. The ancient home of poetry, having a list of poets numbering, according to Persian statistics, between ten and twelve thousand, and including such charming singers as Hafiz and Saadi, such a poetic historian as Firdusi, such a master of agnostic philosophy in poetic form as Omar Khayyám, Persia has never lost the capacity for dealing strongly with realities. Coveted by more than one great Power, she has succeeded in maintaining her political integrity, and seems to have now entered upon a new period of political and commercial development.

The Outlook reported not long ago the granting of a constitutional government to the Persian people, providing for a Senate of sixty members, thirty being elected and thirty appointed by the crown; the Assembly to have control of the finances of the country, both local and foreign, of commercial treaties, of the initiation and management of public works, and of the organization of companies for the construction of railways. The power of the sovereign is limited by a provision that the Lower House cannot be dissolved without the consent of the Ministers and two-thirds of the members of the Senate. This work of a progressive and open-minded Shah will undoubtedly be carried on by his successor, Mohammed Ali Mirza, who has repeatedly expressed his approval of the great political changes made by his father. The new Shah begins his reign in his thirty-fifth year, has had an excellent education, and is in many ways exceptionally well fitted to conduct the affairs of Persia in what promises to be a critical period in her growth. He speaks several languages, has studied European politics, and is familiar with European affairs; he is said to be a keen sportsman, is devoted, as were

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his remote ancestors, to hunting, and is skillful in motoring. He has passed through all grades in the army, from lieutenant to field marshal. Bordering on the Caspian Sea, with access to almost all Russia through the Volga River; touching Turkestan, Armenia, and Mesopotamia; with British India at the east, Persia has great advantages of position, and exceptional opportunities of regaining something of her old influence and prestige.

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The Spectator

The Spectator confesses to an unmanly weakness for tea. Not the tea of the drawing-room, be it understood, that implies social amenities and an acrobatic style of chit-chat for which the Spectator has no sort of genius. What he wants when he is jaded, body, soul, and spirit—when the day is glowering into the unsympathetic twilight of early winter, and he has before him the long journey into Suburbia—is the soothing effect of the fragant cup sipped solitary, or with only a good companion who knows the mercy of silence. If his office were only in London, now, he could despatch the office-boy to the nearest "A. B. C." for a steaming pot, a plate of paper-thin bread and butter, jam, and perhaps a buttered scone. Imagine the result should he send the Outlook's Billy, or James, or Jonathan on such an errand! What is there disgraceful about tea? The Spectator supposes that he could step out and get a cocktail without forfeiting the office-boy's respect. But he doesn't like cocktails. They fret him instead of soothing. Indeed, there are times when he fancies that the nervous tension of New York business life is founded upon the cocktail, and that if we could substitute the English teacup we should accomplish as much and wear out less rapidly.

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Perhaps the tea-table of the drawing-room is the entering wedge. Mrs. Spectator reports a growing tendency among the men who drop in of an afternoon to look upon the tea she offers as something more than a compliment well meant but embarrassing. But we have by no means come to realize the full value of the Boon of the Orient. The Spectator had this forcibly borne in upon him not long ago when business called him to the little town of Peabody, Massachusetts, a suburb of Salem. The afternoon was chill and gloomy with fine rain. Trains are sixty minutes apart at the little Peabody station, and the Spectator's business detained him so that he caught just a glimpse of the departing four o'clock express. Fresh from an English summer, he at once bethought him of consolation to be found in some cozy tea-room where the hour might be idled away pleasantly enough. A glance up and down the dull little street banished abruptly his dream of consuming toothsome cakes by the glow of a leaping fire. This was not England. Still, the Spectator fancied the automobile might have developed some nice private refectory where he might stay the cravings of the inner man. He inquired. "A tea-room? Oh, yes. There was Banning's, with the blue sign." The Spectator sought out Banning's. But alas for his comfortable anticipations! A fly specked window coldly warned him. Inside a dingy, two-by-twice shop, dense with the odors of untold successions of ill-cooked meals, was a bald lunch counter set forth with slabs of unspeakable leaden pie. A tea-room indeed!

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The Spectator ultimately discovered little cakes of bakerish suggestion at a confectioner's, and beef-tea at a soda fountain. But as he sat bolt upright on a revolving stool and consumed the hot and so far comforting beverage, he could not help thinking how much the poetry of the exercise was dissipated by the surrounding drugs and nostrums, nor how cozily the kettle simmers, for native and stranger alike, in a thousand bright, clean little shops scattered through the tiniest villages of Old England.

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For the matter of that, it's not in shops alone that you find the cheering cup. Does it not invite you, hot and fragrant, at the very door of your railway compartment every time the train stops? Do not the coaches upon the post-roads of Devon, Cornwall, and, for aught the Spec-

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tator knows, the Lakes, draw up at tea-time at some posting-house, that the passengers may perform the graceful rite without which no English day is complete? The Spectator will not soon forget an October drive from Porlock over moor and forelands to Lynton. The hunt was out, the posting stations noisy with riders dashing in for fresh mounts, the whole countryside thrilling with the music of the horns. From all this heartening bustle the coach climbed up to the solitude of the moors. The sun dropped into a deep bank of cloud, a "nipping and eager air" awoke on the moor, and the Spectator began to find himself, as the guard said, "perishin' cold." It was after hours of brisk cantering over the long, red Devonshire road, when the Spectator's blood was congealing in his veins, that the coach drew up at a cross-roads. And there, apparently miles from any house, sat a little old woman nursing a tea-tray! Off came a deep-padded cozy, and wreaths of beneficent steam began to rise on the frosty air. Nobody asked the Spectator whether he would have a cup of tea, and as he was perched on the highest seat of all, and the ladder was not forthcoming, he began to despair of getting any, when the guard came clambering up, dexterously balancing a full cup. And even now he did not ask if the Spectator would take it, merely demanding sixpence as if it were part of the road-fare. From his point of view it would have been as incomprehensible that a sane man should refuse tea as that he should profess to scorn bed and breakfast. Never shall the Spectator forget the genial glow that pervaded his whole being as he plied himself with bread and butter and piping-hot tea, nor the doze of dreamy contentment in which he passed the remainder of the drive until the lights of Lynton appeared, gleaming like a swarm of fireflies on the shoulder of the cliff. He thought then that he understood the cult of the tea-leaf.

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But he had still something to learn. A week or two later he and Mrs. Spectator attempted to travel to the little town of Broadway. At Evesham they were stayed by the absence of any sort of conveyance except a funereal-looking carrier's cart, the electric train having departed a few minutes before. They set out, therefore, to trudge the six miles afoot. The way was lovely enough, the placid Warwickshire country swimming in the golden afternoon light. But the way was long. Mrs. Spectator's courage failed her when Broadway was yet three miles away, and down she sat her, with an air of hopeless exhaustion, on the long grass beside the road. "Mr. Spectator," she gasped, "I would sell my soul for a cup of tea!" The words were scarcely out of her mouth when her jaw fell. She looked as if she had seen a ghost. Then she began to laugh hysterically. "'Is it'—she pointed with a shaky finger—"is it *real?*" The Spectator looked behind him. Tiptoeing across the road came two little English girls in pinafores, bearing—yes, it *was* real—bearing cups of smoking tea. "Mother said," began the elder, shyly, "would you like some tea? She was just pouring hers, and she thought you looked tired." Mrs. Spectator declares that hereafter, whenever the tea craving seizes her, she shall simply recline upon the landscape and tea will be brought to her. So much for the humanizing influence of the cult.

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The Spectator has been told that there is an economic side to all this which is not so bright. They say, though for this he cannot vouch, that in England day laborers and field hands insist upon thrusting a tea-time recess into their already diminished working day. This must be very embarrassing for employers, but doubtless it is beneficial enough to the workers. For the virtue of afternoon tea is in the relaxation that goes with it, the little oasis of quiet in the midst of the busy day. If we Americans could only learn to interject such a period of repose into our rush, it would matter little what the excuse for it was, whether malted milk, or popcorn, or confectionery. The pause is the thing. And the Spectator maintains that the American soda fountain does not provide it. Who lingers over the phos-

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phate glass? Indeed, who *can* linger, with a dozen other thirsty souls chafing to possess themselves of his seat? New York has tea-rooms and so has Boston, artistic places, but fearfully popular. The cheerful chatter dissipates that quietness of spirit which belongs to the little tea-and-cakeries of Old England. There no eagle-eyed waitresses hover about, fretting to clear away the tea-things, no ostentatious check keeps the monetary part of the ceremony always in view. You may dawdle as long as you please, and the discreet little tea-maker will keep herself out of the way till the moment of your voluntary departure, when she will look thriftily after the shillings.

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When the Spectator wants to dine out and enjoy the full luxury of the experience, it is rarely to an American hotel or restaurant that he goes. The little foreign cafés, these provide brisk service when service is wanted, and complete obliviousness when it is not. The Spectator knows a little French place in Boston where this principle is understood to perfection. You may dine at six and smoke till ten, and not a waiter will cast an envious eye upon your table. It is this that as a nation we must learn—the fine art of idleness. It is for this reason that he advocates the teakettle in the counting-room, and inscribes upon his banners those memorable words of Colley Cibber's: "*Tea!* thou soft, thou sober, sage, and venerable liquid, smile-smoothing, heart-opening cordial, to whose glorious insipidity I owe the happiest moments of my life, let me fall prostrate!"

THE INDIANS AND OKLAHOMA

BY HENRY S. BROWN

TO have carved out of a wild prairie a new State with an area equal to that of New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Connecticut combined, which starts off with more than a million inhabitants, and enters Congress with five Representatives in the popularly elected branch, is something which a man may well be proud to have to his credit. To have done this work without serious scandal, to have safeguarded the interests of all, and to have brought about great reforms in disposing of Indian lands and regulating the making of homes in the wilderness, is something of a test of administrative ability.

Mr. E. A. Hitchcock, the Secretary of the Interior, has really seen the new State of Oklahoma grow from a desert into a great commonwealth. It is true that when he entered the Department early in 1899 the movement of settlers had been going on for about ten years, but it had been in progress spasmodically and almost without regulation. Outlawry was rampant, and the revolver and the bowie-knife the arbiters of disputes. Unscrupulous adventurers had flocked into the Territory, bad methods were in operation, and a strong hand was needed.

The following is a plain story of some of the things that were done by the Secretary of the Interior. As he has been praised sometimes where he did not deserve particular praise, and blamed many times when he deserved nothing but commendation, it will be interesting to point out some of the events which have marked his administration.

It will be recalled that in all of the openings of new "strips" and reservations prior to about eight years ago there was a sensational rush of home-seekers. Before the day set for the opening the homesteaders would encamp on the border. Men, and women too, mounted on swift horses would be waiting for the signal for the crossing of the strip.

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When the signal was given, each homeseeker would dash across the line and make for some favorable point, when the land claim would be staked out. In many instances there was bloodshed between rival claimants, and men, women, and children were injured in the scramble. In addition to this, it was apparent that there was nothing fair in the arrangement, and that many persons, posted in advance through visiting the country quietly, would have a great advantage.

Secretary Hitchcock decided to make a change which would give each person an equal chance. He devised a plan whereby the land was divided up into quarter-sections. Numbers for as many quarter-sections as there were in the territory to be opened were put into a wheel, and on a given day a drawing took place. The man or woman who drew the first number had the first chance, and located his or her claim, and, after having it registered at the nearest land office, entered upon the property. There was a great outcry on the part of many persons because the Secretary of the Interior was conducting a lottery for the Government, but the system was continued, and there was as fair a deal in picking out homes in Oklahoma as it was possible to devise.

It has been during the management of the Interior Department by Secretary Hitchcock that the important question whether Congress or the Indians had the right to dispose of Indian lands was settled. This came about through the great suit of Lone Wolf against Hitchcock, over the opening of Kiowa, Comanche, and Apache reservations within the precincts of Oklahoma. A law had been passed by Congress in 1901 opening up to settlement a tract as large as some of the Eastern States. An allotment of land had been made to the Indians, and arrangements had been made for the sale of the remainder. Lone Wolf, a chief of the Kiowas, who had in a measure lost his influence with his tribe, set about an agitation against the opening of the country, with every prospect that he might rehabilitate himself with his people. With the assistance of the Indian Rights Association and others he obtained an injunction restraining the Secretary of the Interior from carrying out the provisions of the law, on the ground that the consent of the Indians had not been obtained. The Secretary fought this case through the courts, and obtained a decision from the Supreme Court of the United States as to the constitutionality of the law. It was the first time that the question had ever been brought up. If the Indians had the right to control their own land, then the titles of tens of thousands of homesteaders were in doubt. The Court held that the Indians had only the right of occupancy to the lands, that Congress had the right to dispose of them, and that it was to be assumed that Congress would throw safeguards around the disposal of those lands which were not needed by the Indians.

When this case was decided, the greater part of the new State of Oklahoma, which is now dotted with fertile farms, was a trackless waste. Where the thriving town of Anadarko now stands was then a corn-field. It is the outlet to-day of a great and prosperous section that was then not cultivated. Secretary Hitchcock and the Government were criticised for the course pursued in this matter, but it was a question that had to be settled and should have been settled earlier; but the time was coming when Mr. Hitchcock would be criticised by those who supported him in this matter and praised by those who blamed him.

The Secretary held that the Indians were not receiving sufficient money for their lands. He had kept his eye pretty steadily on the land speculators and schemers who sought to get the lands for a mere song and dispose of them at enormous profits. Throughout the Territory there was a band of human wolves with whom the Secretary was to try conclusions.

This test came over the question of the appraisal of Indian lands and their sale to the highest bidder, in case only that the highest bid came up to the price of the appraisement. The Department decided that this was the only fair way to dispose of the lands of the Indians, and this was adopted. It became the policy of the Department only after a

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hard fight in Congress. The Territorial land ring, the speculators, and the adventurers opposed any departure from the old scheme of having the lands disposed of at about $1.25 an acre. A bill was finally passed in connection with the disposal of 480,000 acres of Kiowa lands, which had been for years rented as pastures, and 25,000 acres of woodland. There was a stubborn contest in Congress, the Secretary holding that these lands were worth at least five dollars an acre and some of them worth much more than that. In committee meetings and on the floor of Congress it was asserted that the land would never be taken up by settlers if they had to bid for it; but the arguments of Secretary Hitchcock and the Indian Commissioner finally prevailed, and it was decided that there should be bidding for the land in homestead tracts, and no bid would be accepted that did not at least come up to the appraised price.

At the present writing these bids are being received. Under the terms several alternate bids can be received from each person, so that if the bidder cannot get the land that is his first choice he can also have an option on other land. This plot contains in pasture or farming lands three thousand quarter-sections of one hundred and sixty acres each; in other words, three thousand farmsteads. Instead of the scheme being a failure, there have been seventy-six thousand bids already received; one hundred clerks are kept busy opening them, bids are coming in at the rate of four hundred a day, and it is estimated that by the time the bids are all in there will be, including alternate bids, two hundred and twenty-eight thousand applications for land at the rate of five dollars an acre and upwards.

In connection with the sale of Indian lands there is a notable incident which will illustrate the difficulties of the Secretary of the Interior and his peculiar indifference to public criticism where he knows he is right. It will be recalled that at the last session of Congress the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives professed to have discovered a startling instance of the disregard of the law by the Secretary. It was disclosed by the Committee on Appropriations that the Secretary had sold town lots in Hobart, Anadarko, and Lawton, county seats of three counties; had realized the sum of $730,000, which, instead of turning into the treasury, he had deposited to his own account, and had arbitrarily expended this sum without warrant of law. The obvious intent of these representations was to make it appear that the Secretary had violated the law and had misappropriated $730,000.

The fact is that the law provided that the proceeds of this sale, after paying the expenses of surveying, etc., were to be expended, under the discretion of the Secretary, in the construction of public improvements, such as court-houses, school-houses, jails, bridges, and roads. This was done, but, so far as known, the Secretary has never taken occasion to reply to his Congressional critics; and the developments subsequent to the sale show that it was a very wise provision which placed the disposal of the money in the hands of Mr. Hitchcock. The sale over, a great clamor rose as to how the money should be expended. The inhabitants of each locality wanted the cash apportioned and deposited in the respective county treasuries. Instead, the Secretary had the money deposited in the Sub-Treasury at St. Louis to his credit as trustee of the various town site funds. This led to a great criticism on the part of local politicians who wanted to expend the money.

In the beginning the Secretary attempted to operate, in the disbursement of the funds and the construction of the improvements contemplated, through the local county organizations, with the approval of the Governor of the Territory. In one of the counties, however, the county commissioners proceeded to such a point as to advertise and let a contract for the construction of a court-house, without the Secretary's knowledge. An inspector was sent down to investigate. He found a vast amount of material on the ground, the foundations in, and the walls partly up. He had no difficulty, however, in pushing the walls over with his foot, with a very slight shove.

Subsequently it was ascertained that

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in this same county bridge piers had been authorized, accepted, and payment ordered, although the piers had never been built at all! An investigation resulted in the flight of the commissioners. They were, however, indicted, in company with the contractors, and brought back for trial. Although the evidence was very direct, public opinion against Secretary Hitchcock was such that the men were acquitted.

The Secretary went quietly on his way, taking the expenditure of the funds out of the hands of local authorities, and organized a construction corps. With the assistance of the engineers of the Reclamation Service and the Geological Survey, he gave to the Territory all the improvements contemplated by the act, and he gave it the worth of the money. He built roads, bridges, water-works, sewers, jails, school-houses and court-houses. All of them are models of their kind, and, notwithstanding the scarcity of labor and the increase in the price of material, each one of these improvements, including the cost of supervision, was constructed within the contract price, and a balance was left in each fund.

In straightening out the tangled affairs of the Territory, the Secretary rendered no greater public service than in connection with the handling of the coal and oil leases. The discovery of great deposits of bituminous coal, and subsequently petroleum and gas, on the Indian lands had led many persons to invade the Territory and obtain leases. These were subsequently sublet, and accumulated in the hands of single persons or corporations, and in time the Secretary found himself confronted with a situation under which practically the entire oil output of the Territory would soon be concentrated in the power of companies allied with the Standard Oil Company. The Prairie Oil and Gas Company had laid a pipe through the Territory, and it was shown to be an ally of the Standard. This finally led the Secretary to make regulations providing for pipe lines in the future in Indian Territory. These provide that no pipe line shall have any further extensions unless it agrees to abide by the rules of the Department, and the effect of this will be to prevent the Standard Oil from maintaining a monopoly and transporting the oil of favored producers only. No exclusive franchises will be granted hereafter; in case of disputes the Secretary of the Interior shall have the power to fix rates, and may compel the extension of a trunk line or lateral lines to new oil-fields; and no independent line may consolidate in the future without the express approval of the Secretary of the Interior.

So, too, with the coal leases. The Secretary made his influence felt in these matters. Mr. Hitchcock is an old coal-miner, and knew all about the business. A very brief investigation on his part convinced him that the Indians were in danger of being cheated by the coal companies under the terms of the lease, which required a royalty on the net ton. This meant that only the coal adhering in large lumps paid a royalty, while that was a small part of the coal actually mined and marketed. The Secretary made the rule that the rate of payment should be on the gross ton, and, while the amount was dropped from ten cents a ton to eight cents a ton, the Indians are now getting a proper return and a payment on all coal mined.

Thus have been hurriedly sketched some of the important reforms wrought by the Secretary of the Interior in the great State which has grown up almost like magic in the Southwest. His influence has been felt by the population, which, looking to the future, is at this time preparing for the holding of all mineral lands not now occupied by settlers for the benefit of the State. In the same way his influence is being shown in the plan proposed by Mr. Francis E. Leupp, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, to safeguard the rights of the red men to their mineral lands by organizing them into a company, in which each Indian will be a stockholder, and at the head of which will be the White Father at Washington. Thus Oklahoma may in a short time be the home of two of the most interesting experiments in social economy in modern times—a State owning its coal mines and a Nation constituted as a joint stock company.

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KING OSCAR OF SWEDEN

BY PAUL HARBOE

IN the course of a visit to Stockholm a year and a half ago—a long, delightful visit—I found myself face to face repeatedly with a phenomenon whose aspect, I was very sure, I had observed in no other Continental capital. At first the mystery was evasive enough, but little by little, as my impression of the town continued to deepen in tone, its more intangible parts began to simplify themselves and loom appreciably distinct. Finally, for my curious sense, there was no escaping some sort of interpretation, the last stage of which unconscious process developed on the day of my departure For it was then I felt, irresistibly, that, though I had had but the merest glimpse of him in the flesh, I was yet familiar with the *spirit* of the King. I knew now that I had seen reflected in so many things, material and immaterial, fruits of the will and the work of a beautifully human monarch. By these signs I could recognize the subtle sensibility, the educated conscience, the generous knowledge and large nature of Oscar II. of Sweden, And I recall hearing myself mutter, not, I confess, without emotion: "This king at least has a soul."

Oscar Fredrik, third son of the then Crown Prince Oscar (afterward Oscar I.) and Princess Josephine, was born at Stockholm January 21,1829. From his grandfather, Carl XIV. Johan, he received the title of Duke of Östergöthland. This title he bore until 1872, when, having become heir apparent by reason of the deaths of his brother Gustaf and the infant Crown Prince Carl Oscar, he succeeded Carl XV., whose demise occurred September 19 of the above year.

Prior to this period Oscar had taken little or no active interest in affairs of state. Only in an abstract way, through the medium of temperament perhaps, did he appreciate the import of administrative matters, politics, diplomacy. Of course it was inevitable that he should mingle with courtiers and hear more or less of the hum of the monarchical machinery. But his heart dwelt elsewhere. One cannot read the record of his apprenticeship in the navy (which began when he was but ten years of age), or the even more illuminating story of his career as amateur traveler, poet, historian, scholar, without being struck by the truth of this. For a long time, however, he cherished but one prime aspiration—to see himself the commander of a fleet. He learned to love the sea with an intelligence of instinct and a fervor of passion consummately wonderful. For the heroes of his boyhood and early manhood he had an affection and admiration, the best accessible proof of which may be found in his verses to such daring Swedish sea-fighters as Claes Uggla, Jonas Hökenflykt, and Nils Ehrenskold. Many pages of King Oscar's "Ur Svenska Flottans minnen" (Out of the Story of the Swedish Navy) are devoted to a glorification of their deeds. The same book of poems, anonymously submitted, was awarded a prize by the Swedish Academy in 1857, and contains what must be considered the author's finest poetic effort, the melodious, virile stanzas to the Baltic. Very fair translations of this poem exist in German and French.

Wandering through the published writings of Oscar Fredrik (as he always signs his productions), I one day found the following bit of sentiment:

> More than life itself to many a youth is a flower to adorn the bosom of his love; and well it is that this be so.

If we regard the quaint little aphorism in the light of the most beautiful event in King Oscar's personal life, or apply it thereto, it will have twofold significance. I refer to his courtship with Princess Sophia of Nassau, at Monrepos Castle, near the banks of the Rhine, in Koblenz, where the young couple first met. She was then twenty, he twenty-seven. Beautiful, lovable, dearly fond of many of the very studies to the pursuit of which he was greatly devoted—history, languages,

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music—Oscar Fredrik soon saw in the German Princess the woman of his dreams. September 26, 1856, they announced their betrothal, and, in commemoration, immediately afterwards they cut their names in the trunk of a giant oak, benign witness to their troth. Likewise, the lovers planted a few of its acorns, one of which sprouted and became in the course of a year a two-leaved tree. This they transplanted in a flower-pot and brought with them to Stockholm to set it out in the idyllic gardens of Drottningholm Castle. Eight or nine years later, when Hans Christian Andersen was visiting the royal family there, Prince Oscar gave him a branch of the memorial tree, which, as the story-teller remarks, was even then taller than he. It is to-day one of the sturdiest of all the oaks on the grounds.

After his marriage to Princess Sophia the heir apparent cultivated his literary talent with renewed zeal. Such was the quality of his interest that it was no rare occurrence with him in those days to sit up till dawn discussing Runeberg, or Tegnér, or Goethe, with some congenial companion. Strangely enough, however, he had no liking for the representatives of the New School (so called), a reactionary party that championed "the rights of fancy and feeling within the domain of poetry" and deprecated and opposed the prevailing French standards and tastes in arts and letters, as instituted by Gustavus III. In 1859 he published a translation of Herder's version of "Poema del Cid," sumptuously illustrated and dedicated to his brother, the Crown Prince, likewise an amateur man of letters. Two years later, at his wife's initiative, he had rendered Goethe's "Torquato Tasso" into Swedish. As an aid to the perfecting of her knowledge of the language, Princess Sophia copied the translator's manuscript, of many revisions and blurs, in an elegant hand, from which it was ultimately typed. The production is dedicated to her.

Few, if indeed any, of King Oscar's predecessors equal him as an orator. His eloquence has on more than one occasion proved a power by which he has been enabled distinctively to assert his royal position and authority. Sonorous, rich, musical, his voice is in itself a splendid artistic force. During the crisis with Norway, in June, 1904, I had the pleasure of hearing him address ten or fifteen thousand loyal subjects who had gone to his country seat, Rosendal, on the outskirts of the capital, to express their approbation of his attitude and their affection for their king. He spoke very briefly, perhaps not more than two hundred words. But there was a tremor in his voice, and an indefinable something about his bearing, his gestures, from whose haunting appeal it was impossible to escape. It was a most impressive spectacle. I shall never forget the sight of the venerable monarch standing there on the balcony, surrounded by his children and grandchildren, in the failing light, facing the multitude. Not like a crowned ruler did he look to me; I could distinguish only the man who, deeply conscious of the responsibilities of his office and the solemn significance of the particular hour, recognized above all the reciprocity of the issue, and, recognizing it, seemed indeed to be *of* the people that were doing him homage.

With his ascendency to the throne his literary activities virtually ceased. He surely must have found it a somewhat awkward journey, the transit from the quiet haunts of private life to the inviolate halls of sovereignty. In the beginning, extreme caution characterized his official acts. He spared no effort to continue as nearly as possible the administrative policy of his predecessor, Carl XV., than whom there never was a more popular regent in the Kingdom of Sweden. It may be mentioned that the people were slow to approach the new king. They mourned the loss of his brother very much as the Danes had grieved over the death of their Frederick VII. about ten years previously. For quite a long time the nation showed either a lack of inclination, or sheer inability, to reconcile itself to the change. At least a decade was to pass before Oscar II., thanks in large measure to his wise dealing with public questions, his patriotism, his keen sympathies with national ideals and prompt appreciation of the urgent need of certain reforms, completely won the people's hearts.

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The progress of the country in commerce, industry, agriculture, education, etc., during his reign, has been gradual and sure. In 1875, for instance, Sweden had 2,516 factories, employing altogether 52,207 hands and producing material to the value of 143,000,000 crowns. In 1895 the number of factories had increased to 5,083, that of the employees to 140,776, and the value of the output to 418,000,000 crowns. Since his coming into power over one hundred new railways have been constructed and thrown open for traffic. In 1875 about 6,400,000 acres of soil were under cultivation; in 1895 almost 9,000,000. All the institutions of learning owe much of their present prosperity directly to the King's interest. The splendid International Exposition held at Stockholm ten years ago testified eloquently to Sweden's eminence in the matter of national efficiency.

The gravest period of his reign came in the summer of 1904. Norway had again made the consular question a crucial issue. The attitude of the heads of her Government, Berner, Lövland, Michelsen, was almost aggressively defiant. A now-or-never spirit of determination marked their whole *modus operandi*. Would King Oscar at last sign the bill (unanimously passed by the Storthing) giving the Norwegians the right to appoint consuls of their own and cease to recognize those named by Sweden? There were many days of suspense. Then suddenly the "Extras" announced that the sovereign's answer was a veto. From that moment events moved with great celerity, and on June 7 Oscar II. was King of Sweden only. A less peace-loving monarch than he would never have gone through that crisis without bloodshed. As it was, war was narrowly averted. Had the Norwegians been dealing with Crown Prince Gustavus, the result would probably have been different.

Returning to the personal side of the King, mention should be made of his annual summer excursions to Marstrand, on the western coast. For at least a generation Oscar II. has spent a month or more of each year at that resort. Naturally, the little place is crowded to overflowing during his visits—the fair sex predominating. At Marstrand the monarch meets old friends, classmates at college, fellow-officers of the navy; he participates in social functions, revives ancient sea memories, swims, sails, and mingles freely with the hardy inhabitants. For him it has become a place of reunions, a treasure-room of fond reminiscences. It is not too much to say that in its welcome to the royal visitor Marstrand somehow embodies the heart of the entire nation. Those sojourns in the historic town, through whose quaint streets sometimes blow the winds of the near North Sea, have contributed largely to disseminate a broader knowledge of King Oscar's personal attributes among the people.

As a patron of art, the Swedish monarch's name will be coupled by posterity with that of Gustavus III. It is a rare artistic delight to wander through the halls and corridors of Drottningholm Castle, where the monarch spends most of the summer. Since the elaborate renovation and reconstruction of its interior, begun in 1885, and carried out under the King's personal supervision and measurably at his own expense, it has become one of the most beautiful royal residences in the world. Every object bespeaks fastidious selection. The arrangement of the paintings, the architectural effects, the form of the furniture, the floors, ceilings, windows, all add essentially to the general harmonious beauty of the place. To see it is to be convinced of King Oscar's intelligent appreciation of art, especially when you know that the work bears the marks of his own hand.

The Swedish sovereign was ever a devoted theater-goer and admirer of good acting. Few foreign players of distinction have appeared in Stockholm without being honored by an invitation to meet the King. Some years ago, actuated by his love of the stage, he established a new order, or roll of honor, entitled "Litteris et Artibus." He himself makes the awards; and though the decoration is intended chiefly for worthy representatives of the histrionic profession, literary men, scientists, and musicians are, I believe, also eligible.

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Among famous theatrical folk who have received it are Sarah Bernhardt, Eleonora Duse, and Christina Nilsson.

No one could testify with greater authority to King Oscar's interest in science than Dr. Sven Hedin, author of "Through Asia." It is a matter of simple fact that Hedin's first great journey of exploration was very materially backed by his royal patron. When the scientist returned, having penetrated wildernesses and traversed deserts never hitherto trod by a white man's foot, the venerable King embraced him like a father, calling him "my son." Sven Hedin is again in Asia, and a large fraction of the money that made possible his second expedition was likewise contributed by Oscar II.

It is not generally known here that the monarch's youngest son, Prince Eugene, takes rank with the leading artists of his country—with Norström, Berg, and Zorn. Nor are very many Americans aware of the not uninteresting fact that Crown Prince Gustavus is an inveterate if not an invincible tennis-player. Every season he enters open tournaments, and though he does not always prove a winner, there are but three or four men in all Sweden who may be called his superiors. His passion for sport Gustavus inherited doubtless from his father. From time to time, throughout a long span of years, King Oscar has distinguished himself as a follower of many branches of outdoor pastime. As recently as 1895, at the army maneuvers at Nerike, he surprised every one by his daring expert horsemanship. In 1893, at the races of the Royal Swedish Yacht Club, he personally sailed one of the competing boats to victory. He is a patient, lucky fisherman, a sure shot, a reliable bowler and curler, and was not so very long ago a "rattling" ski-jumper and a first-rate swimmer.

Greater kings have occupied the throne of Sweden; more efficient rulers too, perhaps, and stronger men. Not with Gustavus Wasa, Gustavus Adolphus, or Charles XII. will be the place of Oscar II., round whose name no lustrous historical glories can ever cluster. His was a reign of peace. The mention of his name will have no echo of cannon-thunder or battlefield horror. But it shall be said of him, with truth, that he served his country well. It shall be said of him that never did he stand unmoved, haughty, cold, before any prayer of his people. He has striven conscientiously and to the utmost extent of his powers to fulfill not merely the official but the human duties of his exalted position. Sincerity of purpose, unselfishness, energetic pursuit of the intellectual ideal—by such virtues shall posterity recognize the moral greatness of Oscar II., one of the most human, most intellectual, most lovable royal personages of modern times.

PROBLEMS OF MODERN FREIGHT HANDLING

BY EARL MAYO

THE head of the greatest milling company in the country said some time since that he could ship a barrel of flour from his mill in Minneapolis to London for fifty cents, or exactly the cost of delivery in the suburbs of the city. This is a striking illustration of the measure of perfection to which the long-distance shipment of merchandise has been developed. It is no less instructive as showing that the problems of the local handling and transshipment of freight have not been solved in any such satisfactory manner. While the price of railway transportation has been reduced forty per cent. in the past twenty-five years, the cost of transshipment and local distribution, even in our largest cities, is practically the same as it was a quarter-century ago, while, broadly speaking, there has been little improvement in the agencies performing this part of the work of transportation.

In these days, when competition is a struggle between localities rather than between individuals, small economies in

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the handling of business become important factors in determining the commercial position which a city shall occupy. Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Norfolk, New Orleans, Galveston, and other ports are all competitors in handling the products of Western farms for export. All of these, as well as Chicago, St. Louis, and others of the more advantageously situated cities of the interior, are competitors for the manufacturing and distributing trade of the country. Trade follows the channels of least resistance, just as surely as do the forces of nature, and, since the reduction in railway freight rates has made terminal and transshipment charges a large proportion of the total cost of reaching a given market, the city which can do this part of the business most cheaply and efficiently has a decided advantage in the struggle for trade.

A lively appreciation of the importance of this fact is causing the big cities to give attention to their equipment in this particular, with the result that some very ambitious and comprehensive plans for cheaper and more rapid handling of merchandise are being carried out in different parts of the country. It is in this direction that attempts to introduce further economies into the business of transportation are likely to be most successful in the near future. At present the cost of moving a hundred pounds of grain by rail from Chicago to New York —a thousand miles—is ten cents, while the cost of moving it from car to ship by lighter—two or three miles—is three cents. Manifestly the railway charge is low out of all proportion to the lighterage charge, considering the enormous investment required for railway as compared with water transportation. Many similar illustrations exist to indicate that warehousing and transshipment facilities must be greatly extended and cheapened to keep pace with the demands of modern business.

Naturally the situation and the requirements of each trading center are peculiar to itself, so that the methods of meeting these must be diverse. Naturally, too, different cities have been particularly successful in handling different phases of the general problem. The seacoast cities, for example, have been especially concerned with the improvement of their means for handling export and import trade, and have dealt more especially with the problem of transfer from ship to rail or *vice versa*, while, of the interior cities, Chicago and St. Louis have given particular attention to the transshipment of goods between local business houses and the railways.

For the handling of wholesale and jobbing business, St. Louis has in operation a highly efficient system, combining the warehousing and shipping requirements of the city's great trade in the Southwest. This is accomplished by bringing together in a series of great buildings—collectively called Cupples Station—under one administration, a large part of the city's wholesale business. The various railway lines entering St. Louis are connected by what is known as the Terminal Railway, so all freight can be moved over a single series of tracks. Alongside these tracks are erected the great brick buildings of the regulation warehouse type which compose Cupples Station. Spurs and switches extend into each of the buildings. Freight destined for any of the various firms occupying space in the buildings is unloaded from the car upon trucks which are run upon powerful hydraulic lifts, raised to the floor which the firm occupies, and delivered to the consignee at one handling. Similarly the outgoing shipments of the various firms are placed upon trucks at their doors, are moved down to the car platforms, and placed in the cars by the employees of the station management, who also attend to all such matters as making out bills of lading and other details of shipment. In this way the slow and costly method of team cartage is eliminated entirely, except upon local business.

The advantages of the plan embodied in Cupples Station are numerous, aside from the saving in time and expense through the elimination of cartage. The shipping business of all the firms occupying quarters in Cupples Station is conducted practically as though it were that of a single firm. All the loading, unloading, and handling of freight is done by a single force of employees, and con-

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sequently is done in the most economical manner. Incoming freight is received and unloaded during the night, and outgoing freight is loaded and shipped during the day. Each road has a scheduled hour for pulling its train, and the various firms assort their orders and get out their shipments to conform as closely as possible to these schedules. Shipments are made in carload lots, and it is as easy for a firm to ship a single package as a carload. The expense of freight handling and shipment is assessed pro rata among the tenants of the various buildings.

Two thousand employees are required to handle the business of Cupples Station, and while there is a great saving to the various tenants over the cost of conducting their trade in separate and detached buildings, the station itself pays handsome dividends. The property now belongs to Washington University, having been presented to the institution by Mr. Samuel Cupples and Mr. Robert Brookings, the original owners. The various buildings of the station occupy an area of over thirty acres, with a floor space of over a million and a half of square feet. Its thirty tenants do a yearly business running well up toward $100,000,000. If the various economies introduced by this concentration of business amounted to only one per cent., it would represent, therefore, a saving of a million dollars yearly. Actually it is probably three or four times this amount.

In Chicago the problem of handling the goods traffic within the city by the slow and costly system of trucking became so difficult on account of the congestion of the streets and freight terminals that five years ago the construction of a freight tunnel, running through the main business section and connecting with the railway terminals, was begun. This tunnel was opened for business in January, 1905, and at present is thirty-four miles in extent, with a capacity of 30,000 tons of freight per day, and represents an investment of $15,000,000. It is intended ultimately to extend the system to the outlying districts of the city. Another feature of the plan is the proposal to bring together all the railway lines entering Chicago in a common terminal station, with the underground road acting as the collector and distributer of freight between the railways and wholesale houses.

The peculiarity of the underground Chicago railway is that it carries only freight, no passengers. Its stations are platforms connecting with the basements of the great business houses at a level of from twenty to forty feet below the street. The difficulty arising from the fact that not all the business structures were built down to the level of the roadway has been met by the construction of elevators by which cars are lifted up to the loading platforms, thus doing away with the necessity of a double handling of goods.

Most of the merchandise handled by this underground railway goes direct from the store of the shipper to the railway, but the company maintains warehouses where goods may be stored if necessary. Incoming freight is distributed to the various houses for which it is destined at night, while outgoing traffic is collected and moved to the railway freight stations by day.

Taking into account the greater cheapness of this method of handling freight, and the saving in time over the movement of goods by team through crowded streets, and in the orderly delivery at freight depots as compared with the confusion and delay that prevail when the approaches to these stations are crowded with teams, it will be seen that this system presents tremendous advantages for a city with business houses distributed over an extended area, and with congested streets in which it is practically impossible to keep traffic moving steadily and freely. It is inevitable that in the course of time most of the larger cities of the country will have freight subways or tunnels for the handling of heavy goods traffic on a plan somewhat similar to that adopted in Chicago.

The problem in port cities presents special features in addition to those indicated in these inland trade centers. Here are necessary not only a close and convenient connection between business houses and railways, but also one between railways and ships for the handling of the great volume of export and import trade. In the ports of recent develop-

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ment, such as Norfolk and Newport News, as well as in some of the older ports which have undertaken improvement work on a comprehensive scale, such as Boston, this problem has been met with fair efficiency. In these cities, for example, ships can dock on one side of grain elevators while freight cars run up to the other side, and the grain passes through the elevator from car to ship with the greatest speed and the minimum cost.

New Orleans may be cited as an excellent example of economic handling of export grain traffic, both because it has an enlightened and liberal system of port administration, and because it has one of the most complete and efficient systems of docks in existence. These are the Stuyvesant docks of the Illinois Central Railroad, which were destroyed by fire about a year ago, but have now been rebuilt, and present a perfect example of an up-to-date system of transshipment from rail to water. The principal item in the export trade of New Orleans is the shipment of grain, in which it is rapidly coming to be the first port of the country. The system of handling grain on these docks is typical of the latest and most efficient development of this business, although it does not differ radically from that in vogue in various other ports.

The tracks of the Illinois Central run directly along the river front, and a part of the dock equipment consists of two immense grain elevators. Switches from the main freight tracks run directly into the elevators, and the opening of the car door allows the grain to run through gratings upon belts which elevate it. Another series of endless belts convey it through a long aerial passageway to the edge of the docks, where it is discharged through a boot directly into the steamer's hold. Thus the grain is conveyed from car to ship by automatic machinery in the most rapid and economical way possible. As the docks are the property of the railway, there is no charge upon steamers for the use of docking facilities. Thus New Orleans is a free port so far as the grain trade is concerned. The steamers avoid not only the high pier rentals charged in New York, but also the moderate tonnage taxes which are imposed in most other cities and the low tonnage tax charged at the State-controlled piers in New Orleans. It is this fact, in connection with the enlightened and progressive policy of the railway company in its competition for grain trade, that has done more than anything else to build up the wonderful grain business of the Crescent City.

When one turns to the methods of handling business in the greatest port of the country, he is struck by the fact that it has lagged behind other cities of America and Europe in the improvement of its facilities. The very advantages which caused New York to become the commercial headquarters of the country are in part responsible for the handicap under which it labors in the transshipment of freight. Being an island, New York has never been able to transfer freight direct from cars to ships, or *vice versa*, as is done in other cities, thus bringing about one of the great causes of excessive port charges, the expense resulting from lighterage. Most of the freight that enters or leaves the city must be transferred by lighters to or from ships, or by car floats or ferries across one or both rivers.

The high lighterage charges and the double handling of freight result in part from inadequate or inconvenient dock and warehouse facilities. The inadequate facilities in turn result from the topography of New York, which has brought about congestion in a small section, enhancing to enormous figures the value of New York real estate. Further, the docks of the city are to-day a source of revenue approximating $2,000,000 annually from rentals and other charges, and the value of a policy which makes them such a source of income is becoming more and more questionable in view of the beneficial results which English ports enjoy from free docks. The city, instead of securing a huge return from her docks, could well afford a tax for a number of years which would make for her ultimate prosperity by attracting increased freight, and, as a result, still further increasing the value of her real estate.

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So long as the present inadequate dockage facilities continue, so long will one great obstacle to New York's commercial supremacy—excessive port charges—remain in her path. Liverpool, with a population of 600,000, has spent $200,000,000 on terminals and docks, and Marseilles, with only 400,000 inhabitants, has disbursed an equal sum. The New York Commerce Commission, appreciating the wisdom of such a policy, recommended that the conveyance in perpetuity of any land under water within the limits of the city of New York be prohibited, and that the city, with the aid of the Legislature, should strive rapidly to provide New York with modern piers with which to meet the demands of commerce.

Again, aside from the handicap of inadequate dockage facilities, New York, on account of her closely centered population, finds the struggle against freight congestion in the handling of cars a severe one. The same policy that would benefit the handling of water traffic would, on account of the interdependence of the various factors, aid very materially in every way in the solution of the problem which New York is facing. When freight can be moved directly from car to vessel, both land and water transportation will be benefited.

"The purposes of a terminal," says the New York Commerce Commission, "are three: three purposes are served; the first is receipt, the second storage, and the third shipment. Where these are united, as in Newport News, Baltimore, and New Orleans in the South, and at Montreal, Boston, and Portland in the North, a perfect terminal exists; but in the proportion that they are separated, as they are in New York, that is an imperfect terminal."

The greater part of New York's incoming rail freight is received on the Jersey shore. That which it is necessary to store is held in Brooklyn, and nine-tenths of the outgoing freight moves from New York. In other words, the three functions of a terminal being widely separated, New York's commerce is bound to suffer as a result. Ships being loaded in New York with grain for foreign ports are forced to receive that grain from a lighter, since they cannot lie alongside docks and receive it direct as in other cities. In Boston, for example, grain going from an elevator where it has been stored, to the piers where the boats are lying, after having been unloaded at the elevators from the cars, is discharged directly into the holds of the steamers on a belt inclosed in an aerial gallery.

In New York, freight, if it is to be stored, must be moved from the car in various complicated and expensive manners. That which is to be stored up and down town in the city is handled by a system of drayage so vast that estimates of its cost place it at $35,000,000 annually. So large is this system that it has been said that if all the drays in the city were put into a single line the shouts of the drivers could be heard from New York to San Francisco. In contrast to this inefficient system may be instanced Chicago's freight subway, which is planned to connect with every terminal and with practically every important shipping house in the city, and to collect and distribute freight unimpeded below the level of the city streets. Everywhere in New York one may see the workings of this drayage system. Everywhere on the river may be seen examples of the lighterage and car-float system, which altogether cost the city, at a conservative estimate, $50,000,000 a year.

The great bulk of incoming freight, when it arrives at the western side of the North River, where the freight terminals are located, must either be floated across the river to Manhattan and distributed by drays, or must be taken by floats or lighters down the North River, through the bay, and across to Brooklyn, or up the East River—a long voyage on probably the most congested waters of the world, which naturally results in an increased expense in handling. All this expense can be remedied only by centralizing receipt, storage, and shipment points of freight.

The improvement which is so urgently needed to enable New York to handle her vast volume of goods transportation efficiently must come from the adoption of the policy which is now definitely set-

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tled upon to solve the problems of passenger transportation—the construction of tunnels. Underground systems of transportation have proved their superiority to bridges, surface and overhead systems in the handling of human freight. In the movement of goods the latter are totally inadequate under the conditions of congestion and high land values that obtain in New York.

At present the energies and resources both of the city itself and of the great transportation systems serving it are being devoted to the work of providing for the adequate handling of passengers. As soon as the comprehensive plans for the provision of such facilities are determined upon, equally intelligent effort should be directed to the matter of extending similar advantages to the freight business of the port. Two things are necessary for this—the construction of freight subways, either as a municipal enterprise or by private capital, and the building of freight tunnels under the rivers by capital supplied or supported by the transportation lines centering in New York. These measures, in connection with a new system of dock administration, will make it possible to combine the three functions of receipt, storage, and shipment far more closely and effectively than at present, and will do more than anything else to maintain New York's prestige as the commercial metropolis of the country.

Meanwhile, as a direct advance toward greater expedition and lessened cost of transshipment of freight, important plans are now in progress which will result in more direct connection between Western trunk lines and the railways that serve New England and Long Island. These plans will do away to a great extent with the tedious and indirect shipment of freight by boat from Jersey City terminals across the North River, around the lower end of Manhattan Island, and up the East River to Harlem for the New England roads, and to Long Island City and Brooklyn for the Long Island traffic. The new plans provide for a short ferriage across the unobstructed waters of the upper bay from terminals located on its western shore, and then from the landing-point in Bay Ridge for rail connection with the New England and Long Island roads. Probably—indeed, we may say inevitably—the ferriage will be done away with in the course of time by means of the projected tunnel under the bay, which will make possible an all-rail route via New York for traffic to the East from Western points.

The details of the plan now in execution show how vast are the improvements already under way. The New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad is enlarging the capacity of its freight yards in the Bronx, and, slightly below them, has acquired over eight hundred acres of ground which are now receiving an equipment that will make this property one of the finest yards in the country. The old yard will continue to handle local freight, while all through traffic will move in the future through the new yards. On the Jersey side the plans of the Pennsylvania road call for a new and tremendous freight terminal, not opposite the island of Manhattan, as at present, but nearly two miles further south—that is, at about the central point of the west shore of the upper bay. Almost directly opposite these terminals the Pennsylvania and Long Island Railroads are to prepare another set of freight yards. From this point the lines of the Long Island Railroad, running north, are to carry freight to a point near its Long Island City terminal, where it is to connect with the newly franchised New York Connecting Railway. The tracks of the new road will cross the East River by a bridge via Randall's and Ward's Islands to the Bronx terminal of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford.

Simplicity is one of the prime requisites in freight handling, and the railways having these improvements in hand doubtless see ample returns for the great outlay which these projects require, while the business of the city as a whole must inevitably respond by a proportionate increase.

Another item in New York's commercial reorganization as a shipping center is the still indefinite project for a freight tunnel parallel to the river front on the west side of the island of Manhattan—a tunnel to collect freight from all parts of the city, connecting with all the various

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tunnels and terminals, to deliver it for further shipment. Transfer yards under the city itself are by no means an undreamed possibility, since Chicago's freight subways have shown what may be done along these lines.

Then, too, the projected vast new terminals of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford, and the Pennsylvania, will afford better facilities for the loading and receiving of transatlantic cargo. Thus the plans already under way will make for the unification of terminal purposes; but these improvements, important as they are, are merely the first steps toward the adequate and finally satisfactory solution of New York's transportation problem.

The importance of these improvements in different parts of the country, in which hundreds of millions have been or are being invested, is to be measured only by the vast volume of our foreign and domestic trade. The saving of a quarter-cent in the handling of each bushel of grain or each bale of cloth on its way to market means a saving of millions in the course of a year. The achievement of the same relative speed, cheapness, and efficiency in the collection, delivery, and transshipment of merchandise at terminal or shipping points that has been realized by American railways in the transportation of this merchandise over long distances means a great step forward toward the commanding position in the markets of the world.

MY BOYHOOD'S BLACK FRIEND

BY JACOB A. RIIS

IT doesn't seem as if a man could go away from home, these days, leaving everything snug, without some one coming along, before his back is fairly turned, and "exposing" something or somebody to which he had pinned his faith without question. It is bad enough that it has got to be so that one hates the sight of a bank, and pays his insurance premium with an inward turn at the suggestion of champagne suppers and campaign corruption which it will bring up. But when, the other day, traveling way out West, I picked up a paper and found the European starling posted as the worst, most immoral of recent immigrants, a thief, a marauder who ought to be deported without a hearing, I own that the limit of my patience was reached. I don't know what the poor bird had done. The man who wrote the story was so busy piling up wrath against him that he had no time to bring forward his evidence. I should like to see it. The one charge I made out was that he ate fruits of a kind he didn't specify, but of which it was said there weren't any in the neighborhood of New York, where the starling, so the story said, is becoming numerous. I expect it is all of the same kidney, poor stuff. The starling was my boyhood's friend, and I should think myself a poorer stick than his maligner if I did not speak up for him, now that he is in trouble.

I did not know that he had crossed the sea. I have longed for him often, and the news moved me more than your readers can perhaps easily understand. You see, we grew up together. Almost the earliest thing I remember is the box by my bedroom window which the first rays of the rising sun struck in early spring. Then, as soon as ever the winter snows were gone and the daffodils peeped through the half-frozen crust, some morning there would be a mighty commotion in that box. Black shadows darted out and in, and a great scratching and thumping went on. And while I lay and watched, with heart beating fast —for was not here my songster playmate back with the summer and the sunlight on his burnished wing?—out he came on the peg for a sidelong peep at my window, and sat and whistled the old tune I loved, nodding to the bare trees he knew with his brave promise that presently Jack Frost would be banished for good, and all would be right. Was he not there to prove it? And it was

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even so. The summer was right on his trail always.

The weeks passed and the Old Town lay buried in a dreamy sea of blossoming elders. In field and meadow the starling was busy from early dawn till the sun was far in the west; for his young, of whom there was always a vigorous family—and oh! the glorious blue eggs we loved to peep at before Mrs. Starling had taken them under her wing—had a healthy appetite and required worms and grubs in countless numbers. But whether they went to sleep early, or he thought they had had enough, always when the setting sun gilded the top of the old poplar he would come with all his friends and sing his evening song. In the very top branches, swaying with the summer wind, they would sit and whistle, the sweet clear note in the minor key that comes across all the years to me, when I am worn and tired, with the promise that some day it will all come back, even my black playfellow of the young days. Near New York the article said he was. Then he may be near my home on Long Island, and I shall put up boxes in the spring.

That was the first labor of love I turned my boyish hand to, just an empty starch-box. Later on, when I learned carpentering, I made him a more substantial home, a tenement with flats for three, and it hung by my window many years after I knew it no more. I had long been absorbed in the fight with tenements made for human kind by builders with no such friendly feelings, when my father wrote that the winter storms had blown down the box and broken it, and that written inside in my boyish hand they had found this legend:

This box is for starlings, but, by the great horn spoon, not for sparrows.

JACOB RIIS.

I suppose it was the near approach of his going away, with the stork and the swallow, to leave us in the grip of the long winter, that made me in desperation try to cage him once. How I could I don't know. Boys are boys everywhere, I suppose. I made the cage with infinite toil, caught my starling and put him in. But when I saw him darting from side to side, struggling to get out to the trees and the grass and the clouds, my heart smote me and I tore the cage apart and threw open the window. It was many days before I could look my friend in the eye, and I was secretly afraid all winter that he would not come back. But he was a generous bird and bore no grudge. Next spring he was there earlier than ever, as if he knew.

It must be almost fifty years since, but I have not forgotten it. It is to me as vivid as if it were yesterday, that black day when, with the instinct to "kill something" strong in me, I had gone out with my father's gun, and, coming through the willows, met a starling on joyous wing crossing the meadow on the way to his nest. Up went the gun, and before I knew I had shot him. I can see him folding his wings as he fell at my feet. I did not pick him up. I went home with all the sunlight gone out of the day. I have shot many living things since, more shame to me, but never one that hurt as did that. I had slain my friend.

There was a story abroad in my childhood that young starlings were good eating. I cannot say how true it is; it was like the theory as to squabs. I once kept pigeons on purpose, but gave it up, without finding out. How can one kill one's own pigeons? But I can testify that young sparrows are good. I have eaten many without a pang of conscience. We used to borrow the cook's long stocking, and go out to the straw-thatched barn by night and dig into the nests in the thatch which we knew of. When the stocking was full we had enough for a good meal.

The sparrow we scorned. He was a cheeky tramp without redeeming qualities. The starling was good company, and more than paid with his song for the house-room we gave him. I guess he has not changed. It is perfectly easy to prevent his disfiguring houses and trees with his nest by just taking him into the family. In that he is just human and a type of the boy we sometimes bewail as bad. Just treat him with kindness and see what he will do. And the outlay in time and trouble is such a trifle compared with the return in the case of both.

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In Denmark the starling had long been protected, when I saw him last, because of the service he renders the farmer. And I can well believe it; for I have seen an innumerable host of them moving across a meadow, like an army, and with something of the precision of it in its way of progress, leaving no wriggling thing behind. Because of the protection he has enjoyed he has multiplied almost beyond belief. A dozen years ago, when I spent a summer in Denmark, we used to drift down the river in our rowboat after a day's fishing. In the twilight the chatter of these birds in the reeds, where they were settling for their night's rest, and settling the day's disputes at the same time, as it seemed, was deafening. Suddenly getting on our feet, we would shout and clap our hands. Then the flocks would rise and rise, and keep rising farther and farther down the river until the sky was darkened and the twilight became night, while the noise of the million wings sounded like rolling thunder. We stood, open-mouthed, and watched the marvelous sight, while the children crowded up close, half afraid. Yet I do not remember hearing any one complain of the starling as a nuisance.

To be sure, they ate the elderberries when they were ripe, and the town that was white in spring became purple from their droppings. But we could not find use for all the berries in the soup which Danish housewives know how to make so well, and were glad to share with them. That, so far as I know, was the starling's only lapse from a meat diet—in Denmark. There was an interval between the blossoming and the berrying of the elder, when he disappeared from our fields with his young brood, then full grown. It was reported that during those weeks he made a raid upon the olive groves of southern France, and that there they gave him an evil name and hunted him as a malefactor. I don't know about that. Since I have tasted the raw ripe olive in southern California I have my opinion of any one who would choose such a diet—but no! I am speaking of my friend, and I have set out to defend him. Anyway, it is hearsay evidence upon which a jury would not convict a known thief—certainly not I my boyhood's friend and companion. If America never gets a worse emigrant, I think we can rest easy. I shall want more than the evidence of a grouty newspaper correspondent before I shall be convinced that he is not entitled to come in and be heartily welcomed as a lovable, companionable bird and a singer, or perhaps rather a whistler, such as we have not the like of, unless it be the mocking-bird of the South.

INDIA'S AWAKENING: THE SWADESHI MOVEMENT[1]

BY YOTRINDA MOHAN BOSE

LORD MACAULAY said, "The heaviest of all yokes is the yoke of the stranger." India, with a population of about three hundred millions, is under the yoke of a stranger. Nearly all that is known in this country about India is that it is a country full of snakes and wild beasts, where widows are oppressed, and that it is yearly ravaged by famines, plagues, and other kinds of pestilences. Because of these horrible calamities you Americans with kindness send timely help and you also send missionaries to "save" the people. Yet hardly any of you know or care to know the causes that underlie almost all these evils. But at present I shall confine myself to telling something about the present new spirit afloat in India, called the "Swadeshi Movement." It aims to work out our own salvation, and very little is known about it in this country. The London Times calls

[1] Last week we published an article by Mr. H. G. Bissell on India's Awakening from an American point of view. This article discusses the subject from an Indian point of view.—THE EDITORS.

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it "the rise of a new political power in India," and its own correspondent writes about it as follows: "However much we may deplore that so much of the Westernized intelligence and energy of India should be devoted to purely political purpose and propaganda, nothing can be gained by blinking that fact. The spirit of revolt against authority, which, as I said in my last letter, the Western education has itself produced, has taken the shape of a revolt against British political authority—not against the supreme authority of the British Crown, but against the form in which the supremacy is exercised. The National Congress party controls almost the whole of the vernacular press and not a few English papers in India; it controls a large section of the native teachers and professors who are molding the minds of the rising generation; it reckons among its stanchest supports the vast majority of liberal professions, and notably the large, influential army of pleaders and barristers. . . . These are powerful forces, which it is unwise as well as unfair to underrate. For, if they comprise many elements of prejudice, jealousy, and ignorance, they comprise many worthy elements, a great deal of unselfish devotion and patriotism, however misguided and misapplied these qualities may seem to us. There are men amongst the leaders of the National Congress party whose single-mindedness of life must command the respect of Englishmen as fully as they command the admiration of their fellow-countrymen."

Before describing what this new spirit means it may be desirable to explain briefly about the past British policy in India, in order to realize the situation more clearly. In discussing the Reform Bill of 1833, Lord Macaulay said in the House of Parliament, "We are free, we are civilized, to little purpose, if we grudge to any portion of the human race an equal measure of freedom and civilization. Are we to keep the people of India ignorant in order that we may keep them submissive? Or do we think that we can give them knowledge without awakening ambition? Or do we mean to awaken ambition and to provide it with no legitimate vent? Who will answer these questions with the affirmative? . . . I have no fears. The path of duty is plain before us. . . . It may be that the public mind of India may expand under our system till it has outgrown the system. . . . They may in a future age demand European institutions. Whether such a day will ever come I know not. But shall I attempt to avert or retard it? Whenever it comes, it will be the proudest day in English history."

In that Reform Bill it is said: "And be it enacted that no native of the said territories, nor any natural born subject of his Majesty resident therein, shall, by any reason of his religion, place of birth, descent, or color, be disabled from holding any place, office, or appointment under the said company" (East India Company). If the modern British high officials had followed this act fairly, then by this time the Indians would have been able to serve as governors of their own country. Mr. Macaron (a civilian), while giving evidence before the Commission of 1852, said: "Not a single native that I am aware of has been placed in any better position in consequence of that clause in the statute [of 1833] than he would have been in if no such clause had been enacted."

Moreover, in India the English officers are so expensive that the income of about seventeen hundred natives is spent in maintaining one of them, and the result is expressed by Mr. R. N. Stock: "There is a constant drawing away of the wealth of India to England, as the Englishman grows fat on accumulation made in India, while the Indians remain as lean as ever."

From the time of the opening of the India National Congress in 1855 by the Indian leaders, with the advice and help of some benevolent Englishmen, such as Sir W. Wedderburn, Mr. Hume, and others, we have been sending suggestions and resolutions to the Government of India for reformatory changes, but very seldom has any sympathetic attention been paid to the people's wishes. Yet the work has been diligently followed by the educated Indians for the last twenty years, and though no visible gain came out of this continuous agitation, we

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slowly acquired that determined strength, the outcome of which is the "Swadeshi Movement" in India, which surely has come to stay and grow.

The British are of the opinion that the Indians are not yet ready for self-government. They often say, "Deserve before desire;" that is, let the Indians be competent in the management of their government before the self-government is granted to them. In other words, it is just the same as to expect anybody to learn swimming before entering into water. They also say that the percentage of the educated population in India is too small to allow any self-government. But in England the House of Commons was established two hundred years ago, when the percentage of education was even less than that found now in India. And whose fault is it that only ten per cent. of the Indian population is educated? Compare the facts that the Indian Government has created an income of $27,000,000 from the sale of liquor, opium, and other intoxicating drugs (as these are a Government monopoly), and has an army expenditure of $90,000,000, with the fact that only $7,000,000 is spent on education in all India. I cannot here explain in detail how, instead of sufficient arrangements being made for education, the Government tried its best to demoralize the people of India by forcing the intoxicating drug habit, to increase the revenue.

Mr. Gladstone said, "It is liberty alone which fits men for liberty." Another high-minded Englishman said, "Liberty is the best educator. Its atmosphere is pure and bracing, through which the lark of genius soars high beyond the reach of the shafts of despotism and clouds of ignorance."

In 1872 Sir Charles Trevelyan (late Governor of Madras) recommended this course to the House of Parliament: "Give them the raising and spending of their own money, and the motive will be supplied, and life and reality will be imported into the whole system. All would act under real personal responsibility, under the eye of those who would be familiar with all the details and would have the strongest possible interest in maintaining a vigilant control over them. And it would be a school of self-government for the whole of India, . . . the longest step taken towards its 200,000,000 of people governing themselves, which is the end and object of our connection with that country." But instead of allowing any hand in the government, the revenue of the country is arbitrarily spent regardless of the people's interest, and the tax is laid without any representation.

Compare, on the other hand, India with Cuba and the Philippines, the people of which countries are in no way more competent than the Indians. In a few years' connection with "Uncle Sam" they got ready for at least some measure of self-government; while India is not yet ready after one hundred and fifty years' connection with England. Mr. Moorfield Storey, of Boston, once asked Sir Andrew Clark, "Have these centuries of British rule brought the Indian people any nearer to self-government than they were when the British began?" The reply was, "Not a bit." Yet the British government in India is "successful."

In brief, the following are the main causes which gave rise to this new spirit, which Mr. Morley referred to in his budget speech: 1. Lack of flexibility in the administration. 2. The reluctance as to adjustment of the system to changing conditions. 3. The growing lack of touch between government and people. 4. The fact that the people have no share in making their own laws for their own benefit. 5. The aspiration induced by the dazzling rise of the New Japan.

Every act of despotism has its limits. That limit is now reached in Russia, and its result is vividly shown in an Occidental way. And that limit was reached in India when Lord Curzon, in spite of popular protests, divided the province of Bengal on the 16th of October, 1905. I am unable freely to discuss this act, for want of space; but its direct result is the rise of the "Swadeshi Movement" in India. The main underlying objects of this partition scheme are very concisely stated in an Anglo-Indian paper of Calcutta, The Statesman, to be as follows: "The objects of the scheme are, briefly, first, to destroy the collective

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power of the Bengali people; secondly, to overthrow the political ascendency of Calcutta; and, thirdly, to foster in East Bengal the growth of a Mohammedan power which it is supposed will have the effect of keeping in check the rapidly growing strength of the educated Hindu community."

There were held about six hundred public meetings in different parts of the province, and from ten to forty thousand people attended each meeting and protested against the partition scheme. On the 7th of August, 1905, there was an immense public meeting in the Town Hall of Calcutta, where about twenty-five thousand educated people of Bengal assembled to protest against the partition scheme. It was resolved in this meeting that if the partition scheme were not withdrawn, the people would not use any British goods, and would keep this as a sacred vow until the act were undone.

But nothing could avail them against Lord Curzon's waywardness. On the partition day (October 16, 1905) there was an unprecedented sight in the city of Calcutta, where all native shopkeepers closed their shops; in fact, almost all the business of the city was suspended. No fire was lighted in any house to cook anything, all wore their respective mourning costumes, and the day was considered as a general mourning day in memory of the partition. It was a grand sight to see the legions of people with solemn countenances and barefooted (as a sign of mourning) flowing down the streets of Calcutta to attend public meetings. There were twenty or more public meetings in the different parts of the city; in one about one hundred thousand people attended, and here, after various inspiring speeches, the late Mr. A. M. Bose laid the foundation of a public hall to be called the "Federation Hall," where public meetings are to be held in the future and a museum of Indian products will be kept. At the end of the meeting an ancient custom call "Rakhi" (a silk thread tied round the wrist of a fellow-man as a sign of lifelong friendship and to share equally weal or woe) was revived among both the Hindus and the Mohammedans, meaning, "Brother to brother, side by side."

Then in procession the people went to the Ganges to take a holy bath, shouting on their way, "Bande Mataram!" (Hail, Motherland); and everybody took a solemn vow that the day should be kept as a memorial mourning day till the partition is undone, and to keep this national cry of "Bande Mataram" sacred to his heart for his life long. From this day India (not Bengal alone) is initiated into that aspiration which will undoubtedly bring back within a measurable future her past glory.

Again, on the 1st of November, 1905, the following proclamation was issued from the people of Bengal:

> Whereas, the government has decided to divide Bengal in spite of the protest from the people of Bengal, so we the people of Bengal, to avoid any ill results of this divide-and-rule policy, and to keep the unity of the whole nation, hereby promise to apply our conjoint forces. . . . May God help us.

Long before this there had been a spirit gradually rising in India to use more of its country's products even with loss and inconvenience, and this at once broke into flame at this moment of agitation. The people of Bengal asked the help of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce to use its influence in the House of Parliament to undo this partition, but it refused to do so, calling the agitation ungrounded. Consequently forthwith they boycotted the British goods, and took a sacred vow at the temple of Kalighat in Calcutta to keep that vow religiously till the partition should be undone; for they could perceive that the way to touch the British public was through its pockets.

The partition question now took the shape of the "Swadeshi Movement" (national movement), and the people of Bengal have gone almost into partial fanaticism to attain their object, not caring for the partition only, but for a higher ideal of self-government, which they are bound to realize within measurable future. For the attainment of this they have formed a National Council of Education and chartered a national university to educate the rising generation on national lines and in that spirit of freedom-loving which made America so great. From Bengal this Swadeshi Movement has now spread all over India, and in

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our last National Congress (December 26 to 28, 1905) the president said that "From evil cometh good. . . . The popular spirit that is expressed by this agitation will be remembered in our national history."

It was possible for the British administrators of India to have converted these new forces, which in genesis are Western and in aspiration freedom-loving, into strong allies of the Government, but they have unfairly been drawn into a position of acute antagonism, due to lack of sympathy. Never was the blundering policy of the modern rulers of India so apparent as in the treatment of the aspiration of the educated community of India. Seventy years ago Macaulay declared from his place in Parliament that that would be the proudest day in the annals of England when Indian subjects of the King, trained in the Western methods, should crave for Western institutions. That day has now arrived, but to the modern rulers of India it is a day of trouble and tribulation. The history of the last fifty years has been, with bright intervals here and there, a record of broken promises, tempered by most unsympathetic treatment of Indian public opinion and outrageous disregard of the constitutional rights of the people. The climax was reached under the reactionary régime of Lord Curzon, when the partition of Bengal was carried out against the protests of the people; and the people had to reap the bitter fruits of the partition in the Russian methods of rule introduced into the new province.

The Government of the new province undoubtedly adopted a policy of repression, and relentlessly pursued it, apparently with no other object than to kill the agitation and to stifle and strangle the Swadeshi Movement. Circulars were issued everywhere prohibiting the right of public meeting and suppressing public processions. It was because of these circulars that the police dispersed with inhuman assault the Provincial Conference of the Indian National Congress at Barisal. Government lawyers and schoolmasters were removed from their offices for their connection with the Swadeshi Movement. Then there was a crusade against the school-boys. They have been hunted out of the schools, rusticated, and some sent to jail. Even the very schools they attended did not escape. Some of these were deprived of the "grants-in-aid" they have been receiving from the Government, others were excluded from the privilege of competing for the Government scholarships. Military and punitive police have been stationed at places to terrorize the meek masses and break the back of the agitation. Mr. Morley's "sympathetic policy" has withdrawn these circulars, but the spirit which inspired the circulars is still in force.

The despotism of the Governor of the new province at last reached its limit, and on August 6, 1906, he was forced to resign his position, after being asked by Lord Minto, the present Viceroy of India, through the advice of Mr. Morley, to withdraw his arbitrary order of disaffiliation of certain schools from the University of Calcutta. The next day, the 7th of August, was the anniversary of the partition-protest meeting at Calcutta, and this resignation was taken as a practical result of the agitation, and great popular satisfaction was shown throughout India. In the anniversary meeting renewal of the vow for the Swadeshi Movement took place, with great applause of "Bande Mataram!" (Hail, Motherland).

The practical result of the Swadeshi Movement is not yet apparent, as the time that has elapsed is too short, and, moreover, we are under the constant pressure of the British bureaucracy. But it can safely be stated that in ten years from now Old India will be a New India, and we only want from the outside world kind and sympathetic wishes to strengthen us to work out our own salvation.

The following few lines from the pen of Miss Noble, of the Irish Unionist party, will show how deep-rooted is this Swadeshi Movement in India:

"All India is watching to-day the struggle that is going on in eastern Bengal. Scarcely a word appears in the papers, yet the knowledge is everywhere. The air is tense with expectation, with sympathy, with pride in those grim heroic people and their silent struggle to

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the death for their Swadeshi Movement. Quietly all India is assimilating their power. Are they not a farmer people engaged in a warfare which is none the less real for being fought with spiritual weapons? But let him note who stands in the path of right, and beware. We cannot fail, for all these forces of the future are with us. The Swadeshi Movement has come to stay and to drive back forever in modern India the tides of reaction and despair. Of Calcutta it may be said that in all directions small industries have been springing up like flowers amongst us. Where before there were only despair and starvation, we see to-day glad faces and feel an atmosphere of hope.

"Is the Swadeshi Movement an integral part of the national righteousness? The Mother Church at last has spoken in no uncertain voice. . . . Throughout the whole country is heard the fiat issued at Puri (one of the most important holy places in India). Henceforth it would be held a sacrilege to offer foreign wares in worship. . . ." These extracts are taken from the Indian Review of March, 1906.

Whether Mr. Morley and Lord Minto will rise to the height of the situation remains to be seen. But the problem which confronts them is one of the gravest that any Indian statesman has had to deal with.

THE NEW PLACE OF THE BIBLE IN THE AMERICAN COLLEGE

BY HENRY T. FOWLER

IN 1886 Yale University called to her new chair of Semitic Languages a young teacher from a Western theological seminary who, in addition to the regular work of this position, undertook the Hebrew instruction of the Divinity School. Soon it was noised about in the University that the theological students were working as they had never worked before, and, what was more, they were enjoying the Hebrew grammar and vocabulary; they were eagerly mastering the elements of the language, inspired by one who led them to realize their value in opening the mysteries of Hebrew thought and the beauty of its original expression. It was not long before the friends of Yale and the Bible saw the opportunity. This young professor, who had roused such enthusiasm in the Divinity School, might awaken similar interest in Hebrew literature among undergraduates. The money was subscribed, the Woolsey chair of Biblical Literature was established, and the zealous instructor was offered its duties, in addition to those of the University chair of Semitic Languages and the Hebrew professorship in the Divinity School. How royally he welcomed this, as every opportunity to advance a more thorough study of the Bible, his students have tried to show in their recent tributes to William Rainey Harper, prince of teachers.

This professorship of Biblical Literature at Yale, established in 1888, marks the first free and unhampered attempt to teach the Bible to undergraduate students with the combined resources of modern archæological, historical, literary, and linguistic knowledge.

So sharp is the contrast between the type of work thus inaugurated and the forms of Biblical study which had existed in the early days of American collegiate education, that a review of the earlier study and of the causes which led to the change is essential to an understanding of the present place of the Bible in American colleges and universities.

At Harvard, down to the year 1787, Hebrew was a prescribed study, and for thirty years more a Hebrew part appeared on Commencement programmes. For some years longer that language was specified as a junior course, for which, however, mathematics or another language might be substituted; then it ceased to appear as a regular study and

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was announced as "taught to those who desire it." Afterwards, provision for Hebrew temporarily lapsed, to be restored, subsequently, "for those who desired it," and again dropped, until in 1872 the language reappeared as a regular senior and junior elective course. In 1825, when the college catalogue first contained a statement of requirements for admission and of the college course, a candidate for the freshman class was required to "be able properly to construe and parse any portion of the following books: Jacob's Greek Reader, the Gospels in the Greek Testament, Virgil, Sallust, and Cicero's Selected Orations." The student, thus admitted, continued the study of the Greek Testament during a part of his college course. A little later this subject was relegated entirely to the preparatory years, save that specified classes of undergraduates were required to attend lectures on the New Testament, for which eventually lectures "on the means of preserving health" were substituted! In 1843 the four Gospels disappeared from the requirements for admission.

With changes in details, the history of the study of the Biblical languages at our oldest institution of higher learning is the history at many other of our older colleges. Work in the Greek Testament at Yale, as a requirement for admission, was given up a year before its abolition at Harvard. In 1858 Hebrew disappeared from the list of college optional courses and practical surveying took its place! In Princeton, however, Biblical work, consisting in part of reading from the New Testament in Greek, was required of freshmen and sophomores until quite recent years. The English Bible, if taught at all, was usually assigned to some Sabbath hour, under charge of the president. Rutgers students of the fifties kindle into eloquence when they recall the Bible class of President Frelinghuysen, which every student was expected to attend before the Sunday morning preaching service. Similarly, at Brown, the Sunday class of President Robinson left its deep impression. Bible study in our American colleges was thus generally limited to two phases—the study of the Biblical languages provided for in the curriculum, and the devotional study of the Sunday Bible class.

Clearly, sound judgment was shown by those who finally substituted classical authors for the New Testament as an admission requirement in Greek; the reason for dropping the reading of the Greek Testament from the programme of college studies is not so manifestly sound, yet it is not difficult to see how, before the modern elective system made room for many things, the wealth of classical Greek literature drove out a subject which had no especial instructor and must be taught by one whose chief interest lay in other departments of his field. In the increasing proportion of students preparing for other callings than the ministry is doubtless to be found another reason for the gradual elimination of the Biblical languages from the general academy and college courses.

While this work was being crowded out of the old rigid American college curriculum, there were developing, in the world of scholars across the water, methods, material, apparatus, and a new point of view towards the Bible, destined to produce the different type of Bible study which has come to American institutions of higher learning and has found in them, changed marvelously from their former organization and spirit, a fertile field for a new, characteristic American growth. The sources of this new type of Bible study are to be found in the whole movement of modern thought which has submitted the records of all past civilization, as well as the phenomena of nature, to searching examination. Time-honored institutions, as well as traditional beliefs in science and history, have been required to show their validity. The most imposing of these, the infallible church, was roundly questioned and widely rejected early in the history of modern thought, but the Bible seemed long to lie above and beyond all questioning. Luther, indeed, did not hesitate vigorously to comment on some parts of it as below the level of other parts, or even contradicting them; but he grounded his fight against the Papacy on the Bible, and his followers,

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less bold, forgot his criticisms, and, having given up their soul's rest in an infallible church, fell back upon the dogma of an infallible Bible. The opponents of Protestantism early attacked this dogma on the ground of the variant readings of the Biblical manuscripts.

Problems concerning the Bible, once started, were not limited to those growing from the obvious variations of manuscripts. The late seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries discovered many other objections to long accepted views. In the advance of human thought, questions as to when, how, by whom, the books themselves were composed were just as inevitable as the earlier textual study. The early church had fixed upon twenty-seven books, which, in conjunction with the Jewish sacred writings, composed its authoritative canon; the church of the Middle Ages had fenced in these from free investigation; the Reformation demanded that the individual should have the right to study and interpret these documents. Given the open Bible of the Reformation and the modern thirst to know things back to their very roots and then back to the composition of the soil out of which the roots draw their sustenance, the free investigation of the Bible could no more be stopped than the progress of natural science.

It happened that when the thoroughgoing examination of the books of the Bible was begun, there was in use among students of ancient literatures a name for such investigation—the "higher criticism." Naturally enough, one of the scholars of the late eighteenth century, Eichorn, a man trained in classical study and an intimate associate of men of letters, used the term familiar to humanists of his time to describe this process of investigating the inner nature of the writings of the Old Testament. The term has given offense to many who are unaware of its origin. Scholars have now largely dropped it, not because of ignorant carping at a supposed claim to higher light, but because the term is no longer the most accurate one. The process of analyzing a book into its earlier and later elements, to which the term was originally applied, is but one part of the work of present Biblical scholarship; the larger process is better termed historical criticism.

Soon after the earlier literary (or "higher") criticism of the Bible began to be widely felt, laborers in other fields unearthed treasures which gave the open-minded Bible student materials before undreamed of. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the decipherment of the hieroglyphs brought to light the ancient civilization of Egypt, with which early Israel once and again came into contact; in the heart of the century explorers and translators made the long-buried life of the Tigris-Euphrates valley move again before our very eyes; in the second half it became possible to read the history of ancient Israel as an integral part of the world's early civilization. Her national traditions trace her origin back to that same Tigris-Euphrates valley; Babylonian influences are clearly manifest in her traditions of prehistoric times—as in her narratives of the creation and the flood—and the kinship of her laws with the code of Hammurabi. In the same eager nineteenth century the coating of mediæval, worthless geographical tradition was torn from the hills and valleys of Palestine. An American, Professor Edward Robinson, of Andover, has been styled "the pioneer and father of modern Biblical geography." Prior to his work, cut short by his death in 1863, it had not been possible really to picture Biblical history on its true background. Such agencies as the Palestine Exploration Fund have made their contribution by unearthing coins, pottery, inscriptions, and ruins. Side by side with all this work, the free internal study of the Bible steadily pressed forward. Even when it went to extreme limits and adopted one-sided methods, it rendered service by forcing conservative students to adopt historical methods in Biblical study.

The stage reached in Bible study in the last quarter of the nineteenth century may be summarized as follows: (1) The passion to know things as they are led a rapidly growing body of trained scholars, through a century of cumulative effort, to go back of Jewish and Christian traditions about the Bible, and fearlessly to question the books themselves, as to

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their origin, growth, purpose, and meaning. (2) The methods adopted in this questioning were the inductive methods developed by the natural scientists and already in use by qualified students of other ancient histories and literatures. The application of these methods to the Bible would have accomplished something in itself, but (3) in addition, investigators throughout the century poured into the field of the Bible student new facts from the Nile valley, the Tigris-Euphrates valley, and from Palestine itself.

The colleges and universities of Britain and America were little touched by all this development, in its early stages. At the fortunate moment, however, new ideals in the whole spirit and method of higher education in America were already in the air, or in actual process of realization. Harvard was making earnest efforts to develop non-professional graduate study. Cornell, with its liberal ideals, was completing its first decade of history. Johns Hopkins, first to prove graduate courses a success in America, was only a year in the future. The phrase "university spirit" began to be a term with content in our institutions of higher learning. In some cases a genuine spirit of research entered the cut-and-dried courses of professional schools. The old rigid undergraduate curriculum, in some instances suddenly, in others gradually, was replaced by a programme of elective courses. With this rapid development of opportunity for free investigation in every field of human interest, the claims of Semitic history and literature could not long be ignored. The subject was even winning great popular attention because of the discovery and decipherment of the fascinating inscriptions and relics. Our stronger institutions began to establish Semitic chairs. Now Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, Pennsylvania, Johns Hopkins, Cornell, Chicago, California, all have their Semitic instructors, chairs, or departments with several instructors.

We have now traced, as rapidly as possible, some of the streams of influence which, united, made that Woolsey chair in 1888 possible. One other must not be overlooked; four years earlier the entire Bible had been issued in an English translation sufficiently accurate to enable students to do worthy undergraduate work without taking the time necessary to read the Biblical books in their original languages. What was wrought at Yale in the eighties has been accomplished elsewhere. A department of Oriental history and Semitic languages, established at Brown in 1890, developed five years later into a department of Biblical literature and history. In the majority of universities, though, the Biblical courses are treated as a phase of the Semitic department.

But the new place of the Bible is not to be found only in the universities. These can afford full instruction in Semitic literature and history and, as we have seen, provide adequate courses in the English Bible, as a part of this. In separate colleges the strength of the position is keenly visible. These are increasingly providing full courses in the English Bible, under trained specialists. College Bible study under the old conditions ran its course, died its natural death; under the new the subject is an organic part of collegiate education. Especially conspicuous are the women's colleges for their provision in this direction. Wellesley, Smith, Vassar, Bryn Mawr, all have their Bible chairs. Among colleges for men, Amherst can well claim leadership, since she had a quaintly defined "professorship of Biblical history and interpretation and of the pastoral care," established in 1864. The scholarly men who have filled this chair with distinction have labored under great difficulties, because their pastoral relation put their instruction on a different basis from that of other departments—a hampering combination of functions now happily abolished.

The catalogues of American colleges show the wide sweep of the new departure and its influence even in the smaller institutions. Alfred University, in western New York, announces Biblical instruction for its college students "from a literary and historical point of view." Allegheny College, Meadville, has a combined professorship of the English Bible and the philosophy of religion. The catalogue announces that the Biblical instruction is intended "to familiarize the student

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with the history of the Hebrew people, their civilization, and their influence on the world; and to lead to the critical study of the spirit and form of Hebrew literature as it is shown in the English version." Beloit College, Wisconsin, has established a professorship of Biblical Literature and Religious History within the last two or three years, while out in the little University of Southern California we note the Hazard professorship of the English Bible, with, apparently, a well-planned department on the modern basis.

With all this provision in the curriculum, the place of the old devotional Sunday classes has not been left empty. It has been filled by voluntary Bible study, under the fostering care of the Intercollegiate Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations. Last year thirty-three thousand young men in American institutions were enrolled in groups and classes for Bible study. Alumni are organized into local committees to encourage this work and secure for it continuity and strength. The intercollegiate officers in charge of the movement are seeking close touch with those who teach the Bible on college and university faculties. They are advising with these men and inviting them to write text-books for the college Bible courses that form no part of the curriculum. There is happy omen in this growing union between those who are developing college Bible study from the standpoint of the student Christian associations and those who are directing it from the standpoint of the faculties of instruction. It is recognized that the two standpoints are not opposed.

The thoughtful student must pursue his devotional study with a sound intellectual basis, or the Bible ceases to command his respect. College teachers of the Bible rejoice in contributing to the progress of the Association classes, knowing that the historical study of the Bible, to which their lives are devoted, renders high service when it forms the basis for a new confidence and freedom in the devotional and practical use of the Scriptures. In coming to its new place in the modern college and university discipline, the Bible, better understood, comes anew to its old place in the personal life.

ANCIENT MASTERS FOR MODERN TIMES[1]

MANY years ago the present writer asked a better-informed friend to name the best work on political science. He replied, "Read Aristotle." To-day he might with good reason recommend the present volume as one than which there is no better. Aristotle was the critical disciple of Plato, and gives us a reconstructed Plato at a date when Greek political wisdom had reached its acme on the verge of the great transition effected by Alexander of Macedon from city politics to world politics. Mr. Barker's work is no mere translation, it is a masterly exposition of the two chief constructive thinkers of ancient civilization. Plato and Aristotle have been put to larger use in other fields than that which is opened here. It is timely to turn to this. The same causes which turned them to political studies—the evils, resulting from political selfishness and the clash of classes, that finally broke down the Greek city-state—are to-day producing the conviction that modern democracy, like the ancient, is on trial. The ancient democracy differs in form from the modern. It was direct; ours is indirect, administered through representatives. It was unlimited by wholesome checks; ours is limited by constitutional safeguards. But the conception of the State bequeathed to us by Greek idealism must be our cynosure. It is essentially an organization for moral interests, for the realization of a good life. Plato and Aristotle agree in this fundamental conception, though Aristotle is nearer to modern modes of thought in working it

[1] *The Political Thought of Plato and Aristotle.* By E. Barker, M.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

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out. They agree that the virtues of the State are simply the virtues of the individual writ large, and that the essential thing is to moralize the individual. We still find it needful to emphasize this ancient lesson, though we have learned to rely less on external means for making men good. At the same time we must recognize in Plato's idea of abolishing spiritual evil by abolishing the material conditions that foment it a conception that practical Christianity cannot dispense with.

Such ideas as that property is a thing to be held in trust for virtue, and that in the ideal State wealth will be used only for moral ends, are regarded to-day as of Christian or Hebrew origin, and the product of religious thought. They are also Aristotle's own. There is a striking similarity between his view that private property is right when, and in so far as, it subserves the moral end for which the State exists, and Wiclif's view, now being revived by Christian thinkers, that there is no moral title to wealth except as morally employed. In this line of thought, as Mr. Barker shows, Aristotle's ideal State, as a real commonwealth, secures the good of communism while avoiding its evil. Aristotle teaches that common ownership by itself will not produce common-mindedness, but only the devotion of private property to the public service will do this. His formula, "private possession with common use," expresses just what appears to have been the practice of the primitive Christian society at Jerusalem, often misrepresented as communism. The reformed political economy to-day, in its insistence that the proper sphere of economics is that of housekeeper and steward to ethics, is simply repeating Aristotle's lesson. In his time the unchecked democracy of Athens had become "a government of the poor by the poor." We, in a democracy constitutionally limited, have what Aristotle thought of as the ideal form. But we still need his teaching, that liberty consists, not in absolute freedom, but in freedom to do what one ought; that the essence of law is in the law-abiding disposition of the citizen; that it is not a specific form of government—monarchy or democracy—that a nation needs, so much as the right moral habit of mind; in short, to use Mr. Barker's expository phrase, "that it is a cleansing of the heart, not of garments, that the world requires." This accords with the great word that stands first in Jesus' preaching of the kingdom of heaven—"Change your minds." It is the great word to be spoken first to a democracy whose industry, trade, and politics are dominated to-day by self-interest, and which is casting about for new laws to stop the mischief of it.

Two most desirable qualities appear in Mr. Barker's exposition—a just perception of parts as related to the whole, and insight into the spirit within the letter. Certain objections are thereby mitigated which are often made, especially to Plato's scheme for community of wives in his ideal State, and to Aristotle's approval of slavery. In each case Mr. Barker finds a moral interest, however misdirected or imperfect, dominating. Plato's aim, for which he would sacrifice even the family, was a more unselfish patriotism, and a larger freedom to serve the general welfare. Likewise it was for its moral benefit to the slave, conceived of as an inferior being, that Aristotle justified the mild form of slavery which he approved. Each, indeed, exaggerated the effectiveness of laws in molding men—an error not uncommon even now. But each of them combated the exaggerated individualism and sectionalism which is still the bane of American democracy. Each insisted that the ship of State will capsize "if not well ballasted with a social spirit and rational self-control." The spring of wisdom thus opened by sages too late to save the Greek city-state, and the other like it, opened centuries earlier by prophets too late to save the Hebrew monarchy, are the classic sources for the highest political wisdom. The universities to which we look for future statesmen may be congratulated on the addition of this volume to their apparatus for political studies.

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Comment on Current Books

The Apostles' Creed

For clear religious insight and for warm religious feeling the author of this series of short expositions of the Creed is deservedly and widely esteemed. Like his other books, this is characterized by these qualities, preeminently desirable for the exposition of a creed designed especially for use in worship. As an interpreter of Scripture Mr. Meyer's work is occasionally marred by a literalism which mistakes poetry for prose, and fancy for reality. Traces of this have to be overlooked in his present work as in others. (The Creed of Creeds. By F. B. Meyer, B.A. Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. $1, net.)

The Cassowary

A group of crude short stories, supposed to be told by passengers gathered together in the "Cassowary," the most comfortable car on a train snow-bound somewhere near the base of Pike's Peak. (The Cassowary. By Stanley Waterloo. Monarch Book Company, Chicago.)

Christianity in the Apostolic Age

This is a proper sequel to the "Constructive Studies on the Life of Christ" by Professors Burton and Mathews, and by an equally competent scholar. That work was based on the Gospels; this is concerned with the remainder of the New Testament. Its successive portions first narrate events and comment upon them, then propose questions and suggestions for study, with supplementary topics and references to literature. Questions of critical scholarship and matters of detail, more suited to teachers and mature students, are distinguished by smaller type. Four pages are thus devoted to the origin of the Epistle of James and 1 Peter. The important question about the apostolic letter in Acts xv. 23-30 is dismissed more lightly, without notice of the probability that it had, as Professor McGiffert has shown, another origin than the Jerusalem conference. The volume is finely illustrated. (A Short History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age. By George Holley Gilbert, Ph.D., D.D. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. $1.)

The De Witt Clinton Book

This little book is of peculiar interest in that it is the work of the pupils, the teachers, and the friends of the De Witt Clinton High School in New York City. Having adopted as the name of the school that of a famous statesman, all who have to do with this school naturally feel a certain sense of responsibility in molding the character of scholars in accordance with the achievements and qualities of one of the greatest historical figures of New York City and New York State. Accordingly, the school carries on a Clinton Memorabilia Society, which collects and preserves material of all sorts bearing on the history of the school, and also aids in bringing about a more extensive knowledge of the varied activities of Clinton's eventful life. The present booklet is the first of a series which this Society plans to publish. It has the High School song beginning, "When Clinton was the Governor in 1824." It has also the Clinton coat of arms beautifully reproduced in color, and the book is inscribed to the grandniece of Clinton, Marie Clinton Le Duc. There are also a chronology of the events in Clinton's life; chapters on his boyhood and political life; an account of his work as a naturalist; the story of his connection with the Erie Canal, and, most important of all, of his connection with the New York public schools—all followed by an interesting sketch of New York City in Clinton's time. The De Witt Clinton Book. Edited by Frank Bergen Kelley. Brentano's, New York.)

Dr. George A. Gordon's Sermons

This volume of sermons is well worth reading by thoughtful laymen and well worth study by thoughtful preachers. Dr. Gordon easily ranks among the first dozen preachers in America. In this book certain secrets of his power are easily discernible. He is both philosopher and poet—not a philosopher who, having reached conclusions, clothes them in poetic form in order to commend them to those who are less philosophically-minded than himself, but a philosopher who sees truth in images, who thinks in poetic forms, a philosopher of the type of Plato rather than that of Aristotle. His mind is characterized by another contrast: it is thoroughly modern but not critical. He is sympathetic rather than analytic, constructive not negative, and therefore at once a man of free thought and of positive faith. He is always rational but never a rationalist. There is yet another characteristic to his preaching as it is exemplified in this volume of sermons. The logical preacher has been much praised in the schools, and "he is not logical" has been counted in certain quarters the final word of

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condemnation. Dr. Emmons was a fine specimen of the logical preacher, with nine-tenths of his discourse devoted to proving certain propositions and one-tenth to pointing out certain practical conclusions or "applications." At the other extreme is the hortatory preacher, the extreme being found in the Salvation Army exhorter. There may be a slight basis of fact or philosophy or Scripture as a pedestal, but the exhortation is the statue, and sometimes there is no pedestal. Between these two is the preacher who sets forth certain truth, but always with the moral purpose animating him. He does not exhort, but the truth is so presented as to exhort for him. Of this type Phillips Brooks is the finest of modern examples. To this type belongs George A. Gordon. His preaching carries with it a moral impulse. Clearer in definition, he is less powerful in impulse than Phillips Brooks; his enthusiasm is more intellectual, less human, more an enthusiasm for truth, less an enthusiasm for humanity. But they both belong to the same school, the school that uses truth for moral ends, and whose sermons therefore are warm with a suggested rather than an expressed emotion. For all these reasons—for their philosophic grasp, their modern view, their poetic vision, their vigorous faith, and their sane and tender feeling—we commend this volume of sermons both to the thoughtful reader and to the homiletical student. (Through Man to God. By George A. Gordon. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $1.50.)

Gabrielle The most attractive feature of this rather improbable romance is the deserted garden which serves as a trysting-place for Gabrielle, the innocent child wife of a French nobleman whom she has never known, and an Eastern prince who has fled to New Orleans to escape the tyranny of the Sultan of Turkey. The given plot could be handled with some delicacy, but there are offensive touches, and the simplicity of Gabrielle is not presented with fine feeling. (Gabrielle: Transgressor. By Harris Dickson. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. $1.50.)

Is Mars Inhabited? The question whether Mars is inhabited has not been taken up very seriously by the great body of astronomers. Perhaps this is because scientists are quite as conservative in their way as theologians and quite as unwilling to tackle a really new problem, perhaps because their interest is in the material side of astronomy, not in a human question like this, which they regard as out of their beat. However that may be, we are very glad that some scientific astronomers have taken it up and are investigating it with promise of results. Prominent among these is Mr. Percival Lowell, and the latest, and we are inclined to think the fullest and best, contribution to its solution is this remarkable volume, written in a very clear style, free from scientific technicalities, and illustrated by maps and diagrams, so that the non-expert layman can understand it. As Mr. Lowell has promised The Outlook to give at no distant day to our readers his conclusions in a special article, we shall not here anticipate him further than to say that we took up his book with some prejudice against the conclusion which he had reached, and that we have laid it down convinced that the hypothesis that the planet Mars is inhabited is sustained by cumulative evidence which makes it at least a probable hypothesis. But Mr. Lowell's investigations, coupled with those of other earlier investigators, indicate much more than this: they indicate that the inhabitants of Mars are carrying on a system of irrigation for agricultural purposes on an immeasurably larger scale than has ever been dreamed of on our planet, that they possess a high degree of agricultural and mechanical intelligence, and a degree of moral development so far in advance of any we have yet reached that in all probability war is among them wholly unknown. For the reasons by which this opinion is sustained the reader must be referred to the book. (Mars and Its Canals. By Percival Lowell. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.50, net.)

Jeremiah Involved in the tragedy of a dying State, and spending his life in the hopeless task of striving to avert its extinction, the lot of Jeremiah seems as pitiful as that of any patriot known to history. On the other hand, in his appeal from such a situation to the Eternal Righteousness, his utterances reveal a larger piety than appears in the earlier prophets. These two elements of his experience make him an object of peculiar interest among Biblical characters. The present volume will enable readers of ordinary education to read appreciatively the book which bears his name. The translation, divided into sections and paragraphs with headings summarizing their contents, is that of the Authorized Version, modified so far as required for clearness and accuracy, and is accompanied by a sufficient minimum of explanatory notes; the literary form and historical setting receive treatment in an introduction. The name of the distinguished editor evinces the worth of the work. (The Book of the Prophet Jeremiah. A Revised Translation by Rev. S. R. Driver, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.50, net).

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Jewel Weed The action here takes place in a small Western town, and a mystic Hindu character serves as a touch of color and complicates the plot. But the book is too full of reflected culture, and lacking in realism and vitality. It is weak fiction. (Jewel Weed. By Alice Ames Winter. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis.)

A Maid in Arcady This is a commonplace little volume which strives to be idyllic. The story and the marginal photographs are equally inartistic and lacking in suggestive quality. (A Maid in Arcady. By Ralph Henry Barbour. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. $2.)

Mental Development This work has been translated into French and German, with improvements by the author which are embodied in this third revised edition. The contention, advanced long ago by some evolutionists, that where life is, however lowly, there is consciousness, however rudimentary, appears here in more defined terms. Biologists are coming to the view held by Professor Baldwin as a psychologist, that the physical basis of pleasure-pain consciousness originates in primitive organisms rather than in subsequently developed particular organisms. In other words, the "physiological analogue" of pleasure and pain appears at life's beginning, in the heightening of central vital processes, and its effect. Under this stimulus life then and thereafter adapts itself to its environment. All stages of mental accommodation and development are thus included with all the phenomena of organic adaptation under the terms of a single concept. This is the main thesis here unfolded and maintained in elaborate studies of methods and processes. The work is largely a record of the refined research and results of experimental psychology, especially in the study of infant and child life in the author's own family. With the interest these have for specialists in his science goes an interest for teachers, writers on education, and parents in the practical lessons resulting therefrom. The misfortune of being "an only child," who "has only adult 'copy,'" is plainly shown; so is the narrowing tendency of exclusive friendships; so is the folly of fathers who "know every corner of the house familiarly, and what is done in it, *except the nursery*." Certain points are more fully treated in the author's other works, and are duly referred to wherever occurring. As a book of genesis, biological and psychological, the present work is of distinctive and permanent value. (Mental Development in the Child and the Race. By James Mark Baldwin. Third Edition, Revised. Seventh Printing. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.25, net.)

The Pope and the Pentateuch The Outlook reported, August 25, 1906, the conclusions of the Commission appointed by the Pope to pronounce upon the opinions of the higher criticism concerning the Pentateuch, and characterized them as "a distinct and emphatic repudiation" of those opinions. Soon afterward Professor Briggs, of New York, and Baron von Hügel, his Roman Catholic friend, and his peer in Biblical scholarship, exchanged letters on the decision of the Pontifical Commission, which are given to the public in this small volume. They agree that scholastics, not scholars, are in the saddle again, and that the decision now approved by the Pope tends to alienate from the Church educated men and women, but they deem it reversible by the persevering co-operation of Biblical scholars. The succinct statement of the scholars' case against the scholastics which these letters contain gives them an interest for all who regard it as doubtful. (The Papal Commission and the Pentateuch. By Rev. Charles A. Briggs and Baron Friedrich von Hügel. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 75c., net.)

The Princess of Manoa A slender volume, original both in its material and its form. It contains nine Hawaiian folk stories very simply and sympathetically told, and in excellent taste. The volume is printed in black type on paper of a dark brown hue, and there are ten pictures by Mr. D. Howard Hitchcock, which are not simply decorative, but also highly illustrative. In more than one instance they are distinctly striking. (The Princess of Manoa and Other Romantic Tales from the Folk-lore of Old Hawaii. By Mrs. Frank R. Day. Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco.)

The Queen's Museum This selection from among the most characteristic of Stockton's stories for younger readers is a fascinating piece of book-making, with a cheerful dragon on the title-page which would have charmed the genial author, and with illustration in color and gold by Frederick Richardson which will be a source of joy to the fortunate children into whose hands the volume falls. (The Queen's Museum, and Other Fanciful Tales. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2.50.)

Religion and Experience The gifted British essayist, whose volumes have followed one another with remarkable frequency, evidently, as the present volume

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like its predecessors shows, reaps a rich-soiled field. Literature and history, science and philosophy, serve him nimbly while he weaves his thought into a texture both strong in substance and graceful in form. The brevity of his essays, rarely exceeding eight pages, commends them to a world that prefers short sermons, and to preachers who would learn to say in fifteen or twenty minutes much that will both hold the attention and stick in the mind afterwards. The standpoint is that of a devoutly Christian thinker fully responsive to the intellectual demands of the modern world. The Introduction compresses into a short statement, clear and simple, the modern argument for experience as the test of reality, whether in science, philosophy, or religion. (Religion and Experience. By J. Brierley, B.A. Thomas Whittaker, New York. $1.40, net.)

A Reply to Ignoramuses

It is regrettable that public men, from the President downward, are attacked by constant volleys of ignorant criticism. Nothing has shed more luster on the American name than the work of American missionaries among the backward nations. Yet these workers are still a favorite target for ignorant ridicule or calumny in a large portion of the daily press, including some of high pretensions to veracity. The present volume is of the sort that should give a quietus to all who in ignorance or malice "deblatterate" (as Robert Louis Stevenson said) on its subject. It deserves a place among the books of reference found in every well-furnished editorial library. Its chapters, after briefly describing the missionary in contact with the various conditions and classes of persons in his environment, conclude with illustrative testimonies by men of high rank in government, science, literature, journalism, and the public service, Americans and foreigners, hundreds of whom, Christian and non-Christian, tell what they have seen of the praiseworthy facts. It is not only an enlightening but a thoroughly interesting book, and greatly needed also. (The Missionary and His Critics. By Rev. James L. Barton. Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. $1, net.)

Washington Etiquette

While books of etiquette are generally considered a negligible quantity, they would not be published if they were not needed. The present well-printed small volume by Florence Howe Hall on Washington well covers not only the more or less fixed etiquette of official service, but also the social "departures" which have recently characterized more general society. (Social Usages at Washington. By Florence Howe Hall. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.)

Letters to The Outlook

THE BIBLE IN THE OLD-FASHIONED HOME

I also was brought up after the manner of the Puritans, with the strict ideas of Sunday observance and of reading the Bible described in a recent article entitled "My Fetish Bible." But I feel that the author does great injustice to the majority of the children reared under those conditions. I was a merry, fun-loving boy, with a genius for mischief, yet the strict Sabbath-keeping of my early home has for me only the sweetest recollections. Even in my boyhood days the Bible was most fascinating to me. Story-books were few and highly prized, but the Bible stories were far more interesting, and they have never lost their charm. There are those even in this cynical age who cannot hear the story of Joseph and his brethren without tears, and still others who cannot read the account of David's magnanimous treatment of King Saul without a choke in their voice.

I have heard many of the most eloquent public speakers on both sides of the sea, and I have observed that nothing stirs their audiences more profoundly than the old Bible stories well told.

I, together with many of your readers, committed to memory numerous Scripture verses during those quiet old-fashioned Sundays, and now they are more precious to me than all the treasures of secular literature. To thousands of others the Bible is a mine of spiritual knowledge, from which they have ever been digging new and precious thoughts; and it is not a rare thing for them to speak enthusiastically to one another of some new meaning which they have found hidden away under the dear old words. We need no better proof that the old Puritan Sunday and Bible study were great blessings than the fact that most of the children trained under such influences grew up to be godly men and women, a credit to themselves, their parents, and their country. And they in turn raised families of God-

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fearing and God-serving children who have won honor in every sphere of social, intellectual, and commercial life. H. H.

CONDITIONS IN TURKEY

We are, as I write, in the midst of the sacred Mohammedan month of fasting, Ramazan. Not only must no food or drink pass the lips from before daylight till after sunset, but the Koran must be read through, there is daily preaching in the mosques, more time is given to prayer, and in other ways past offenses are to be atoned for and good works laid up in credit for the time to come. Yesterday, in a call upon our Vali—Governor-General—I told him that I had heard that he had directed that the preachers should give their attention to practical affairs. He replied, "Yes, I have told them that we know all about heaven and hell and the future life, but we need to be taught how to conduct ourselves in this life, how to be good citizens. Instead of prosy exegeses upon the Koran, we need to be taught how to behave toward one another and toward the Government." I told him that this is what President Roosevelt is preaching on all occasions. The Vali himself is a faithful attendant upon all the preaching services in the mosque near his residence.

It is not customary for Christians to attend the mosque services, as they have the impression that it is not agreeable to the worshipers there. I listened to a sermon in a mosque many years ago, which was upon the duty of the Pilgrimage to Mecca, and I had a curiosity to hear a sermon of the kind that our good Vali was demanding, so when the muezzin gave the call to the mid-afternoon prayer, I took a native friend with me and entered the mosque. There was a large congregation, and they were engaged in prayer, all facing the south, toward their sacred temple at Mecca. Until this part of the service was finished we stood at the back of the congregation. This is an interesting sight, although I tried to lift up my own heart in prayer for a blessing upon the service, even though, to the most of those who were engaged in it, it was a matter of form, probably. The prayer was mostly ejaculations in Arabic, uttered in a loud voice by the leader, while all followed him in kneeling, bowing with the forehead to the floor, retaining that position for a considerable time, then at another utterance rising to their feet, and again prostrating themselves. As it is Ramazan, this service is prolonged beyond the usual time. The most common ejaculation was "Allah Akbar"—God is great—and with each utterance the position of the body was changed. The congregation was seated in rows, and it is an impressive scene when several hundred people prostrate themselves in worship, even though it may be a formality.

The pulpit is of masonry at the side of the mosque. The preacher, who is the most prominent member of his profession in this district, climbed into it at the close of the prayers, while a Dervish chanted an Arabic hymn. After a prayer in Arabic by the preacher he read an Arabic text, and he proceeded with his sermon. There was very little in it to which I could not say Amen. My companion thought that the sermon received its shape somewhat from the preacher's seeing me among his auditors. He said that their religion demanded that Christians should be treated in all kindness, that along with the Koran they accepted the Old Testament and the New, that the motive determines the quality of the act, that eating in secret while professing outwardly to keep a fast could not be accepted, that God had two books for sins, one for those committed in secret, which were of less harm than those which were committed before others to their being led astray, and these were recorded in the other book, etc., etc. The sermon lasted for more than an hour. It rambled, of course, but it touched upon almost every matter of practical morality, so that after we left the mosque I said to several officials that if they would practice what they had just heard the country would be reformed at once. "That is a different matter," they said; "we understand what is right, but no one of us does it." The preacher also confessed that "we who preach don't practice what we preach." It is a good thing, however, to have the attention called to the essential principles of true morality. I was surprised at the emphasis put upon the motives which lie back of the outward act, for I have been told by Moslems that we are judged by what we do, and not by what we think. The preacher repeated several times, "You can't deceive God."

I have recently been looking through my letter copy-books, and I find that in letters written nearly thirty years ago to The Outlook—it was The Christian Union then—I spoke of the poverty of the people, of official corruption, of the promise of "reform," and it seemed then that matters had reached an extreme limit, and that the process of decline and disintegration could not go on much longer. But there has been a steady increase of poverty since, the long-promised reforms are spoken about no more, and while there are a good many officials who are trying to stem the tide of corruption, it exists in every department, high and low, according to

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the confessions of officials themselves; and as to poverty, it is absolutely appalling. Years ago the people were very poor, but the opportunity to go to America and return brought a good deal of money into the country; but that door has long been closed. Now and then an Armenian smuggles himself into the country from America, but if the Government catches him he is hustled out of the country without any ceremony, and that by Imperial order. Fifteen innocent villagers who had recently come to their homes have been sent away this week under guard, and without the privilege of taking their families with them. A good many still manage to steal out of the country by the payment of bribes, but the most of them make no provision for the payment of their taxes, and they send no money, so their going adds to the burdens of those who remain. There is a steady increase of taxes of every imaginable kind.

Then, too, came the terrible massacres of eleven years ago, with their burning and plunder. Even from the standpoint of the Government it was an insane blunder. Turks who engaged in the general robbery confess that it was a disaster even to themselves. They say that they gathered up the property of others, but that in the general impoverishment they are suffering serious loss. The Armenians have wonderful recuperative power, but the majority of them were so completely crushed in the events of 1895 that they can never recover their former condition. There is little or no enterprise. Able-bodied men seek work in vain. It is a year of high prices, and there is little money in the country.

While physical conditions are thus dark almost to blackness, there is a brighter side. The churches do not lose heart and hope. Earthly trials help them to look to the life beyond, and this is their chief joy. Economic conditions delay complete self-support, but great self-denial is practiced in maintaining their own institutions—the churches and schools. Euphrates College is crowded. In the college proper there are one hundred and sixty male and eighty-two female students, while the whole number of pupils, including the primary departments, is well on towards a thousand. The Industrial Department, including the work done by the orphans, is not only teaching important trades, but it helps many poor pupils to pay in part for their own education. The orphan girls make a superior quality of gingham, and the rugs which they make are of superior quality and bring an extra price. The Vali, a few days ago, paid a long visit to these different departments, educational and industrial, and he expressed much surprise at the progress made here, and he dictated a long article for the local paper in praise of what he had seen. He also asked to have a quantity of the orphan-made rugs sent to him, and from them he selected and paid for nearly $400 worth. The college needs a few thousand dollars for enlargement, while Miss Emily Wheeler, in Worcester, will be glad to welcome additional helpers for our important orphan work.

The Medical Department here has great possibilities, but it is hindered for the lack of a hospital. Some friends have generously started an endowment for an Annie Riggs Memorial Hospital, but only about half of the needed $10,000 has been secured. Help along these lines will increase the light that is struggling with the darkness, and it will wonderfully hearten the workers. Mr. Wiggin, of the American Board, is always a cheerful agent for the passing on of such funds.

HERMAN N. BARNUM.

Harpoot, Turkey.

BELLAMY'S "LOOKING BACKWARD"

When "Looking Backward" was published, twenty years ago, so impossible did its ideals seem that it received little serious attention. Of the many indications of a considerable advance in sentiment towards those ideals a striking one is the interesting article by H. G. Wells, in the November Fortnightly Review, on "Socialism and the Middle Classes." In practically every point set forth there Mr. Wells is at one with Mr. Bellamy. The disappearance of the lower classes and of the "governing class with means," the avoidance of the present social incoherence and waste by extended public control, the economic independence of women, and the transference of the responsibility for the support of children from the parents to the State, are a few of the points on which stress is laid by both.

Not alone in conviction, but in actual accomplishment, we seem much nearer Bellamy's Utopia. There is the rapid growth, on the one hand, of the great combinations, and, on the other hand, of the idea that public control of them is possible. Municipal control of public commodities finds increasing favor. And in England we notice the attitude of the present administration in regard to feeding school-children and the promise of old-age pensions.

Might not some of those who twenty years ago read Mr. Bellamy's book only to smile at its enthusiasm find it to their profit to read the book again in the light of recent events?

E. D. WALKER.

Stellenbosch, South Africa.

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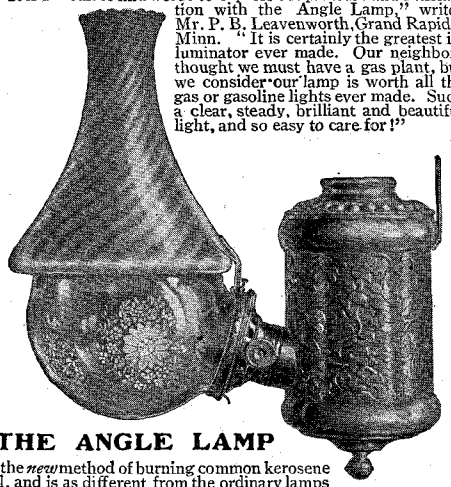

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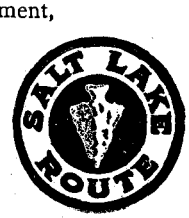

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Samuel O. L. Potter, A.M., M.D., M.R.C.P., *London, Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine and Clinical Medicine in the College Physicians and Surgeons of San Francisco, Cal.*, in his "Hand-Book of Materia Medica, Pharmacy and Therapeutics," in the citation of remedies under the head of "**Chronic Bright's Disease,**" says: "Mineral waters, especially the **BUFFALO LITHIA WATER** of Virginia, has many advocates." Also, under "**Albuminuria,**" he says: "**BUFFALO LITHIA WATER** is highly recommended."

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